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LIFE OF HELVETIUS.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

THE family of Helvetius, originally from the Palatinate, being persecuted there in the time of the reformation, established themselves in Holland, where several of them rose to honorable employments. The great grandfather of Mr. Helvetius was first physician to the armies of the republic, and was of so much service in that capacity, that medals were struck in honor of him. The son of this illustrious man came to Paris at a very early period of life, and was known under the appellation of the Dutch physician. He was the first person who introduced the use of the ipecacuanha root, the virtues of which he had learned from one of his relations, who was Governor of Batavia ; and he employed it with great success both at Paris and in the army.

One of his sons, John Adrian Helvetius, who inherited his talents, cultivated the study of medicine also, and, when a young man, saved Louis XV. who at the age of seven was attacked by a very dangerous disorder. He

was afterwards first physician to the Queen, and by his care and attention gained the friendship and esteem of that Princess. He married Gabriella D'Armancourt, a lady of great beauty, whom he sincerely loved ; and the fruit of this union was Claud Adrian Helvetius, the subject of these memoirs, who was born at Paris, in the month of January, 1715.

Young Helvetius was scarcely five years of age, when his parents entrusted him to the care of Monsieur Lambert, and under the auspices of this sensible and prudent man he very early acquired a taste for reading. At first he was fond only of fairy tales, and works replete with the marvellous ; but to these he soon added Fontaine and Boileau, two authors that must charm every man of sense, though they are not much calculated to attract the attention of infancy.

Being placed at the college of Louis le Grand, he had an opportunity of perusing Homer and Quintus Curtius ; and from these two works his character

ter seemed to acquire a new turn. His taste for study was, however, suspended for some time, and he conceived a violent desire for entering into the army. The despotic behaviour of his regents, and the fatiguing tasks which they imposed on him, disgusted him at first, and he made only a very indifferent progress; but when he came to rhetoric, Father Porée who taught that class, perceiving his pupil to be very susceptible of praise, encouraged his first efforts, and by these means removed his dislike to a college education. Father Porée finding in his exercises more ideas and genius than in those of his other scholars, took the trouble of giving him private lessons, and while he read with him the best authors, both ancient and modern, he pointed out to him their beauties, and exposed their defects.

At college Helvetius first had an opportunity of being acquainted with *Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding*. This book brought about a change in his ideas, and he became a zealous disciple of that celebrated philosopher; but in the manner that Aristotle was a disciple of Plato, by adding new discoveries to those of his master.

The Queen, who was remarkably fond of his father and mother, obtained for Mr. Helvetius, when he was only twenty-three years of age, a place of farmer-general. His parents, who were not in opulent circumstances, were obliged to borrow that sum which every farmer-general must advance to the King, and they bound their son to pay the interest, as well as the principal, from the savings of his income. Young Helvetius, however, had two passions which were sufficient to derange even the ablest financier. These were a fondness for women, and a desire to do good; but at the same time he possessed great probity, and integrity of heart. Whilst he enjoyed the means of indulging every appetite, he indulged with pru-

dence and moderation. Two thirds of his revenue he set apart for paying off the debt which his parents had contracted on his account, and the rest was consecrated to those expences which his age and the goodness of his disposition rendered necessary. Mr. Helvetius had early courted the friendship of men of letters, and among others, that of the celebrated Marivaux, to whom he allowed a pension of two thousand francs.* He gave a pension also of a thousand crowns to the son of Mr. Saurin, of the Academy of Sciences, though at that time he had not published any of those works which afterwards acquired him so much reputation. In short, Helvetius sought out merit wherever he could, in order to befriend and reward it; and though he took great care to conceal his benefactions, a very long list might be formed of all those who partook of his generous bounty.

Helvetius kept up also an intimate correspondence with Fontenelle, and he often visited that great man as a disciple, who went to propose his doubts with modesty. Montesquieu at that time had published only his Persian Letters; but in that work, frivolous in appearance, and in his conversation, Mr. Helvetius perceived the guide of legislators. Montesquieu forefaw likewise what his young friend would one day be. "I do not know," said he, "whether Helvetius knows his own superiority; but as for me, "I am sensible that he is a man far above others."

It appears by several letters of Voltaire, that he was very much struck with the genius of Helvetius. "Your first epistle," says he, "is replete with a boldness of reasoning far beyond your age, and much superior to the productions of our dull writers who rhyme for the book-sellers. You have a masculine genius, and I am fonder of some of your sublime faults, than of those moderate beauties with which we are so often cloyed."

* About eighty pounds sterling.

It is for the most part customary to send the youngest farmers-general into the country, that they may acquire a knowledge of the various branches of the revenue, and inspect the conduct of the different subaltern officers. In these journeys Mr. Helvetius visited several provinces in succession, and wherever he went he was still a great friend to the people. He would never receive the money arising from confiscations; and he often indemnified the losses of those who had been ruined by the oppression of inferior collectors. The farmers-general did not at first approve of so much greatness of soul; but as Mr. Helvetius did these good actions afterwards at his own expence, they had no right to find fault with his conduct.

He sometimes had the courage to be an advocate for the people, both with the company of the farmers-general, and with the ministry. A machine having been employed at the salt works of Lorraine and Franche-Comté, which lessened the consumption of wood, but rendered the salt of an inferior quality, Mr. Helvetius proposed either to destroy the machine, or to reduce the price of the salt. It may, however, be easily imagined, that neither of these proposals were listened to.

At a time when he arrived at Bourdeaux, a new duty having been laid upon wines, which was considered as highly oppressive, he wrote to the company of farmers-general against it, and received a very mortifying answer. One day he said to several of the citizens of Bourdeaux, "As long as you only complain, your request will never be granted. You must, therefore, make yourselves be feared. Assemble to the number of more than ten thousand; attack the people employed by us, who are not above two hundred; I will put myself at their head, and we shall defend ourselves; but at length you shall beat us, and we shall then be obliged to do you justice." This advice was luckily not followed; but on his return to Paris, Mr. Helvetius

supported the complaints of the people of Bourdeaux with so much ability, that he at length procured a suppression of the obnoxious tax.

The relief which Helvetius afforded to people in distress, his intercourse with men of letters, his studies, and his mistresses, rendered him far from being so opulent as he might have been; but notwithstanding his great expences, he still found himself in possession of a considerable sum. Being naturally fond of retirement, he purchased an estate, with an intention of quitting the bustle of the world, and of giving himself up entirely to letters and philosophy. An agreeable female companion was, however, necessary to enliven a life of solitude. Having seen Mademoiselle de Ligneville at the house of Madame de Graffigny, well known by her *Perseian Letters*, he was struck with her beauty, and the charms of her conversation; but before he paid his addresses to her, he took frequent opportunities of being in her company, and finding that she possessed great dignity of soul, without pride; that she supported her misfortunes with becoming fortitude, and that she possessed great goodness and simplicity of heart, he thought her worthy of his hand, and made her a proposal, which was accepted. But before he married, he wished to resign his place of farmer-general, which he did, and out of complaisance for his father, he purchased that of Maitre D'Hotel to the Queen.

In the month of January, 1751, he espoused Madame de Ligneville, and immediately set out for his estate of Voré, carrying with him two secretaries, who were now of little service to him, as he was no longer a farmer-general. One of them, named Bandot, was a man of a peevish, restless, and cynical disposition. Under a pretence that he had known Mr. Helvetius from his infancy, he took the liberty of treating him as a harsh preceptor treats a child. One of his greatest pleasures was to scrutinise with severity, the conduct, temper, character, and works of this indulgent master;

and the discussion never ended without the bitterest satire. Mr. Helvetius having listened to him one day with great patience, said to his wife, " But is it possible that I have all the faults which Bandot finds in me ? Doubtless not—I must, however, own that I have a few, and who would tell me of them, did I not keep Bandot ?"

In his retirement he employed himself wholly in writing, and in promoting the happiness of his vassals, and of Madame Helvetius. In 1755, he lost his father, whom he much regretted, and he refused to receive the inheritance left him, wishing to give it up entirely to his mother; but it was not till after a long contestation that he prevailed on her to retain the greater part of it. The death of his father was the first misfortune that had disturbed the happiness of his life, and made him suspend his occupations. He, however, resumed them as soon as he could, and in 1758 published his book *De L'Esprit*.

Mr. Helvetius spent the greater part of the year on his estate of Voré. Being a good husband, and a good father, he enjoyed there all the pleasures of domestic life, and the happiness of his family was remarked even by those who were not made to feel it. A certain lady of fashion said one day, when speaking of them, " These people do not pronounce like us, the words my husband, my wife, my children."

Soon after Mr. Helvetius came to reside on his estate of Voré, which he had purchased with all the debts due on it, a gentleman of the name of Vasseconcelle, who possessed a small farm, was found to be considerably in arrears, having not paid his rent for some time. The stewards, wishing to ingratiate themselves into the favor of their new lord, did not fail to persecute those who were indebted to him; and he had been arrived only a few days, when Vasseconcelle waited upon him, to let him know the state of his affairs, and to beg for indulgence. He told Mr. Helvetius that unforeseen

misfortunes and embarrassments had for several years prevented him from paying what he owed to the Lord of Voré; that he was not able at that time to discharge the whole; but that he would engage to pay his rent punctually in future, together with the arrears of one year, adding, that if more was required, and if the proceedings against him at law should be continued, he should be entirely ruined. Having then requested Mr. Helvetius to order his stewards to put a stop to the suit, " I know," said our philosopher, " that you are an honest industrious man, and that you are not rich. You shall pay me in future as you can; and here is a paper which will prevent my people from molesting you any farther," giving him at the same time a general acquittance for the whole.

" Ah ! Sir," cried Mr. de Vasseconcelle, throwing himself on his knees, " you have saved my life, and that of my wife, and five children." Struck with this affecting scene, Mr. Helvetius raised him up, and, after embracing him, addressed him in the noblest and most friendly terms, and made him accept of a pension of a thousand livres to educate his children.

Other gentlemen, neighbors, or vassals of Mr. Helvetius, had recourse to him in their distresses, and many of them he prevented by relieving them unsolicited. Those who during the war had troops to raise, and those who had children to educate, or whose affairs were in disorder, might depend upon the Lord of Voré.—Amongst the people of this class, who were under obligations to Mr. Helvetius, we shall mention only M. de l'Etang, who took every opportunity of expressing the kindness which he did them.

If the farmers had sustained any losses, or if the season had been bad, he remitted something of their rent, and often even gave them money. He established an able surgeon on his estate, and furnished him with medicines of every kind, which were distributed gratis to all those who had occasion

cation for them. When a peasant fell sick, he was supplied with provisions, wine, and whatever else could be serviceable to him in that condition. Mr. Helvetius himself often went to visit the sick; to give them every consolation in his power, and to see that they were properly attended. His manner of terminating law suits was extremely efficacious: he paid down the value of the contested object, which put an end to the business at once.

He was a zealous friend, and remarkably attentive to those few peasants who lived regularly, and conducted themselves with propriety. He was fond of having for his guests old men and decrepid old women, who possessed all that rusticity which is usual to those in their situation, but who were honest, and behaved well.

He excited a spirit of labor throughout all his estates, and he was desirous above all of promoting industry at Yoré, because this alone could procure to the inhabitants that ease and opulence which the sterility of the soil denied them. He attempted to establish a manufactory of Alençon point lace; but though this enterprise did not answer, he was more successful in another. After being deceived by ignorant or unfaithful agents, he at length established a manufactory of stockings wove on the loom, which flourishes every day more and more. Mr. Helvetius employed the morning in studying or writing, but he devoted the rest of the day to recreation. He was fond of the chace, but though he was surrounded by poachers, he never punished with severity those who trespassed on his territories. A peasant one day having pursued some game close to the windows of his seat, Mr. Helvetius was so much irritated, that he ordered the man to be watched, and to be seized the first opportunity. Next morning the poacher was found, and dragged into the court by two of his people, who had caught him. As soon as Mr. Helvetius saw him, he advanced towards him in a great passion, and

having looked at him for a moment, said, "My friend, you pursue a very wrong course; if you wished for game, why did you not ask it from me? I should certainly have given it you." After pronouncing these words, he ordered the peasant to be set at liberty, and some game to be given to him.

Madame Helvetius, however, incensed at the insolence of some of those poachers, assured her husband, that if he did not punish them, they would still continue their depredations. Mr. Helvetius allowed that she was right, and promised to treat them in future with severity. He therefore gave orders to his game-keepers to fine those who might be found hunting on his grounds, and to take their arms from them. Some days after they seized upon a peasant, and having deprived him of his fusée, conducted him to prison, from which he was not liberated till he had paid a certain sum of money. Mr. Helvetius being informed of this adventure, went to the peasant, but in a very private manner, to avoid the reproaches of his wife, and having made the poacher promise never to tell what passed between them, he paid him the price of his fusée, and gave him a sum of money equal to that which he had paid by way of fine. In the mean time, Madame Helvetius began to relent, and to be sorry for the peasant's fate. "I have been the cause," said she to her children, "of this poor man's ruin; for it was I who excited your father to punish these poachers." She then went to the peasant's house, and, after asking him the value of his fusée, and the amount of the fine that had been imposed on him, she paid the whole, and the peasant took the money, without disclosing that secret which Mr. Helvetius had made him promise never to reveal.

The same year, on his return to Paris, he met with a little adventure, which plainly shews that neither his philosophy nor his goodness ever quitted him. His coach being stopped

ped in a narrow street, by a cart loaded with wood, which might have been easily drawn aside to leave a free passage. Mr. Helvetius fell into a violent passion, and called the carman who attended it a rascal. " You are right," said the peasant, " I am a rascal, and you are an honest man; for I go on foot, and you ride in a carriage." — " My good friend," replied Mr. Helvetius, " I beg your pardon; you have given me an excellent lesson, for which I must pay you." He then gave the carman six francs, and made his people assist him to draw aside his cart.

After spending seven or eight months on his estate, he carried back his family to Paris, and lived there very privately with a few friends, whose manners and ideas were congenial with his own, devoting one day in the week entirely to literature. That day his house was the rendezvous of the greatest men in the kingdom, and of many foreigners, princes, ministers, and philosophers, who all shewed a great desire to be acquainted with Helvetius.

In the year 1764, he paid a visit to England, where he was received in a manner worthy of his reputation. In an excursion which he made into the country, an unskillful postilion, in driving through a small town in Yorkshire, overturned the post chaise in which he was travelling. On this accident, the postilion, who was much bruised, sent forth loud cries; and though Mr. Helvetius was severely cut by the glass, which was broke to pieces, when he came out of the chaise, with his hands all covered with blood, his whole thoughts were employed on the situation of the driver. Some peasants, who ran to the spot to give what assistance they could, remarked this trait of humanity, and Mr. Helvetius was soon surrounded by almost all the inhabitants of the place. Many of them invited him to their houses, and offered him the use of their horses, and in short, shewed him every mark of that respect with

which his generous conduct had inspired them.

The year following, in consequence of an invitation from the King of Prussia, and several other princes, he made a tour to Germany. At Berlin Frederick III. gave him apartments in his palace; made him always eat at his own table, and took great delight in his company and conversation. He was received with the same marks of distinction by several other German princes, and above all, at Gotha.

In the year 1771, some change was remarked in his taste and disposition, and he appeared to have lost his usual serenity. He was less fond of those conversations which had afforded him the greatest pleasure; exercise fatigued him; and he no longer pursued the sports of the field. This alteration, however, did not alarm his family or his friends, they ascribed it to moral causes, and were far from considering it as a sign of decay. The public misfortunes with which the state at that time was afflicted, seemed to make a deep impression on his mind. At this disastrous period, he prolonged his stay in the country, where a great scarcity prevailed, and which on that account he thought had the greater need of his presence. His whole time there was devoted to acts of beneficence, and every day some new object was generously relieved by him, but with the utmost secrecy. He often said in their presence to his valet de chambre, " I forbid you, Sir, to speak of what you now see, even after my death."

It sometimes happened that he extended his liberality to very unworthy objects, and when his friends reproached him on that account, he would say, " Were I a king I would punish them; but I am only rich, and they are poor; it is my duty therefore to relieve them."

A strong constitution and good health, seldom interrupted by any malady, seemed to promise Mr. Helvetius a long life; but his strength began

began now gradually to decline; and a fit of the gout, which attacked his head and his stomach, deprived this worthy character of his life, on the 26th of December, 1771, to the great grief of his family and friends, and particularly of those who had partaken of his bounty.

Few men inherited greater advantages from nature than Mr. Helvetius. When a young man he was exceedingly well made; his features were noble and regular; and his eyes expressed the principal traits in his character, which were mildness and benevolence. He had a courageous soul, and was naturally an enemy to every species of injustice and oppression. No person must have been more convinced than Helvetius, that to succeed in every thing nothing is necessary but a strong desire to excel. He was an elegant dancer, a skilful fencer, an able financier, and a philosopher, as well as a poet. He had been remarkably fond of women, but without passion, and rather through sensual appetite. In his friendship he shewed no exclusive preference, and his friends always found him sensible to their misfortunes, because his heart was tender. His conversation was often that of a man full of his own ideas, and he sometimes displayed them among people who were not worthy of them. He was no enemy to disputation, and he often advanced paradoxes, that he might hear them contested. He was fond of teaching those to think who were capable of it, and he usually expressed this kind of instruction by the term of *going to hunt for ideas*. He had the greatest respect for the vanity of others, but he assumed so little superiority himself, that several men of learning, with whom he was intimate, were long in his company before they could discover the extent of his abilities. He was afraid of having any intercourse with the great, and in their presence he had the air of being tired and embarrassed. He was ardently fond of glory, and this made him fond of labor; but it never was the cause of

the good actions which he did, for no one concealed them with greater care. He never would give up to pleasure that time which he had devoted to study, and even in his youth, when he had retired to his closet, he would suffer no interruption but from the unfortunate.

The works of Helvetius are, I. his book *De l'Esprit*, published in 1758 in quarto, and in three volumes duodecimo. The literary merit of this production is still the subject of dispute. Voltaire found it to be filled with trivial truths, enounced in an emphatic manner, without method, and disgraced by tales unworthy of a philosophical work. This criticism, which is, perhaps, just, was not adopted by some men of letters. The work appeared to them to be written with much neatness, purity, and even elegance; though they are forced to allow that the style wants spirit, and often abounds with insipid ornaments. There are few books in which the art of displaying a vast system of abstract ideas has been carried farther; but this system is dangerous in metaphysics, and pernicious in morals. By endeavoring to prove that the faculties of man approach near to those of brutes, and that men in their most sacred duties and tenderest sentiments, are directed only by their interest, he degrades virtue, and shakes that foundation which supports religion and morals, as well as paternal love and friendship. His affectation in calling to remembrance scandalous customs and vicious usages, the principles of which he pretends to explain, may also be dangerous, since they tend to prove that the ideas of *vice* and *virtue* depend only upon climate. II. *Bonheur*, a poem in six cantos, published in 1772 in duodecimo, with the fragments of some epistles. Helvetius' poetry is more emphatic than his prose; but neither so clear nor so flowing. In this poem there are some beautiful verses; but the style is often harsh and affected. That systematic spirit which guided the author did not forsake him even when rhyme.

ing. Instead of placing happiness between virtue and friendship, he makes it to consist exclusively in the cultivation of literature and the arts. III. *De l'Homme*, in two volumes octavo. In this work the author attempts to paint man such as nature and society have made him in all places, and at all times, and, though he does not always catch his object, it is nevertheless seen that he has thoroughly studied it. The paradox that men are all born with the same talents, and that

they are indebted for their abilities more to education, is there presented under every possible point of view. The inferences to be drawn from this work may be still more fatal than those resulting from his book *De l'Esprit*; because he writes here in a more natural manner, and explains himself with less reserve. He likewise shews an asperity against the enemies of the new philosophy, which are ill suited to that mildness for which he was so justly celebrated.

LIFE OF FREDERICK III. KING OF PRUSSIA.

[Continued from Page 95.]

HE might now perhaps be detained till he had given up the King's contract with him. Voltaire himself says, "On the 12th of June the packet of poetry came, and I faithfully gave up the sacred deposit, imagining that I might then depart without offence to any crowned head. But at the very instant when I was setting off, I was again arrested, together with my secretary and my servants. They even arrested my niece, and four soldiers dragged her through the middle of the dirt to the house of M. Schmitt, who had, by I know not what right, the title of privy counsellor to the King of Prussia. This Frankfort trader thought himself at that time a Prussian General. He commanded twelve of the town guards with all the importance and grandeur which an affair of such consequence required. My niece had a passport from the King of France; and moreover had never corrected the King of Prussia's verses. Women are usually respected, even amidst the horrors of war; but the Counsellor Schmitt, and the resident Freitag, endeavoured to pay their court to Frederick by hauling one of the fair sex through the mud. They shut us up in a kind of inn, at the door of which the twelve soldiers were

posted. Four others were placed in my chamber, four in the garret, where they had conducted my niece, and four in a still more wretched garret, where my secretary was laid upon straw. My niece indeed was allowed a small bed; but four soldiers with fixed bayonets, served her instead of curtains and chamber-maids. We were detained for twelve days prisoners of war, for which we paid one hundred and forty crowns a day. The merchant Schmitt had seized on all my effects, which were returned to me one half lighter. One need not wish to pay dearer for the poetry of the King of Prussia. I lost about as much as it had cost him to send for me and take my lessons; so that we were quits at parting."

After Voltaire had obtained his liberty at Frankfort, he went to Mentz, where he stopped for some time "to dry his clothes," as he said, "after his shipwreck." He afterwards proceeded to Manheim, where he was received with great respect by the Elector Palatine.

In the month of June, 1755, the King of Prussia went to Cleves, from whence he proceeded *incognito* to Nimeguen, and from thence to Amsterdam, accompanied only by Colonel Balbi and one servant. He very parti-

particularlly viewed the harbour and the shipping; and during his stay at Amsterdam, was much pleased with the house of Mr. Brankamp, a merchant, who had a fine collection of pictures, and also with the house of the Jew Pinto. When Frederick went to the house of Mr. Brankamp, that gentleman was not at home; and his wife would not suffer the King to enter the room in which he was to wait for her husband, till he had pulled off his shoes, which were not sufficiently clean for the neatness of her apartment. Mrs. Brankamp is also said to have been of so intractable a temper, that, after her husband had returned, and acquainted her with the high rank of their guest, she maintained that she had acted right, and refused to make any apology for the liberty she had taken with the Prussian monarch. As Frederick found that his being at Amsterdam soon began to be rumoured about, he hastily quitted the city, with his companion, the Colonel, and went back to Cleves, from whence he returned to Potsdam.

The peace which Frederick had concluded in 1745, was interrupted ten years afterwards by the war that broke out between the English and the French, respecting the boundaries of Acadia in North America. Upon this occasion England entered into an alliance with Prussia, and France with Austria. Frederick had strong reasons to suspect that some private measures were concerting against him between Russia, Austria, and the Elector of Saxony; but however secretly the treaty was concluded, his Prussian Majesty was informed of it, and thinking it safer to anticipate his enemies than to wait for their troops, he penetrated into Saxony with a numerous army, at a time when such a movement was little expected. A great outcry was raised against this invasion; but he endeavored to justify his conduct by a memorial, the substance of which was as follows: "All those who form a league with the powers against whom I carry on war, are

" my enemies. The King of Poland, " Elector of Saxony, has concluded " a defensive treaty with Maria Theresa, he is therefore my enemy, " and I give him public notice that " I will march against him." These reasons did not appear sufficient to the states of the empire, who declared war against him as the disturber of public tranquillity; and in 1757, he saw Russia, the German empire, the House of Austria, Saxony, Sweden, and France, all united to attack him. The troops of the latter power took possession of his territories, from the city of Gueldres, to Minden, on the Wefer, whilst the army of the Empress of Russia seized upon all Prussia, and that of the Emperor penetrated into Lower Silesia. Frederick, beat at first by the Russians, gained considerable advantages over the Austrians, but was beat in his turn in Bohemia, on the 18th of June. He, however, made up for all his losses by the battle of Rosbach, on the frontiers of Saxony, which he gained on the 5th of November. In that advantageous post he waited for the French and the Austrians, who, struck with a sudden panic, fled almost on the first discharge. The discipline and military exercise which Frederick had introduced among his troops, and which he kept up with the greatest attention, were the real causes of this victory. Frederick still added to the glory acquired at Rosbach, by another victory, which he gained over the Austrian army, near Breslau, two months after, but which was disputed by the enemy with greater obstinacy and vigor. By this victory Frederick recovered Breslau, and having taken fifteen thousand prisoners, all Silesia submitted to his authority. In short, he gained so many advantages, repaired his losses so soon, and with so much ability, that he rendered the efforts of the united powers altogether ineffectual. This war, commonly called the *war of seven years*, was terminated by a treaty of peace, concluded on the 13th of February, 1763, by which Austria confirmed the cession

sion of Silesia, and Frederick promised to support the Archduke Joseph, eldest son to the Emperor, who was soon to be elected King of the Romans.

When peace was completely established, Frederick returned once more to his capital, from which he had been absent above six years. Having arrived at Berlin on the 30th of March, 1763, he was received by the princes of the blood, foreign ministers, and principal nobility, who were assembled on the occasion. Rejoicings and illuminations were continued in the city for several days after his arrival; and on the 4th of April, at eight o'clock at night, he went through most of the streets of Berlin, in an open chariot, accompanied by Prince Ferdinand, of Brunswick, in order to view the illuminations and devices that were invented to celebrate his victories. On this occasion, as well as on his arrival, he was every where saluted with loud and general acclamations of "Long live our King and father!" To which he replied, "Long live my dear subjects; my beloved children."

Soon after his arrival at Berlin, his Majesty made some magnificent presents to the Queen, and the royal family. He also gave several considerable donations for the relief of the poor in those parts of his dominions which had suffered during the war by the inroads of the enemy. To many of his disbanded soldiers he distributed farms, and he gave them the horses of his artillery to assist them in the cultivation of the lands that he had assigned to them.

On the 24th of December, 1763, Baron Trenck, who had been imprisoned at Magdeburg for more than nine years, and with such circumstances of cruelty as must ever reflect the greatest disgrace on the King of Prussia, was released from his confinement. This gentleman, who was a native of Konigsberg, in Prussia, and descended from an ancient family, had received a commission in

the Prussian horse-guards when he was only eighteen years of age, and was treated by the King with great favor. Trenck, however, found the service in which he was engaged in the King's body guard attended with too much fatigue, but he still continued to follow literary pursuits, of which he was remarkably fond, and was introduced to some of the most learned men then at the Prussian court.

When the Princess Ulrica married the Prince-Royal of Sweden, Baron Trenck escorted her as far as Stetin, and on this occasion an amour commenced between him and the Princess Amelia, another sister of the King. From this lady he often received considerable presents, which enabled him to live with more splendor than his own fortune would have permitted. He attended the King with the rest of the guards into Silesia and Bohemia, in the campaigns of 1744 and 1745, was made Adjutant to his Majesty, and had a share in several battles, in one of which he was wounded. It happened, however, very unluckily for Baron Trenck that he was first cousin to another Baron Trenck, who was in the Austrian service, and this relationship proved to him a source of great calamity. The Austrian Trenck, who had no children, and was very rich, had written to the mother of the Prussian Trenck, that he intended to make her son his heir. The Austrian Trenck also sent back two horses belonging to his Prussian cousin, which had been taken by the hussars under his command. These circumstances excited in the King some suspitions of the Baron's fidelity, and these were artfully fomented by an officer of the guards, who had a personal animosity against Trenck, and who did every thing in his power to injure him. At length, when the Prussian troops were in Bohemia, a letter came to the Baron, written as from his Austrian cousin, and containing some overtures to him to enter into the Austrian service. This letter he supposes to have been forged, but he readily communicated it to his brother

brother officers; and as he wrote no answer, expected no ill consequences from it. Such use, however, was made of it, to incense the King against him, that he was arrested, deprived of his commission, and imprisoned in the fortress of Glatz. While in this place, the Princess Amelia still continued to correspond with him; she also condemned the unjust anger and precipitate conduct of her brother, and sent the Baron a thousand ducats. After peace was concluded, finding that his imprisonment was still continued, he made several desperate but unsuccessful efforts to escape. He at length, however, accomplished this desirable object, when he had been detained at Glatz seventeen months, being assisted and accompanied by an officer who had received some cause of discontent. After this Baron Trenck entered into the Russian service, in which he became a captain of dragoons. Whilst he was in this situation, happening to be at Dantzig, a scheme was formed by the Prussian resident in that city and some Prussian officers in the recruiting service, to seize him, and convey him forcibly into the Prussian territories; but having received intimation of this plot, he found means to defeat it, and treated some of the officers concerned in it with so much indignity, as to add greatly to the animosity which the King of Prussia had conceived against him. Trenck was afterwards advantageously introduced at the court of Peterburgh, by the friendship of General Bernes, minister to that court from the court of Vienna, and Lord Hyndford, minister from the court of Great Britain, both of whom were personally acquainted with the Baron when he was in high favor at Berlin. He had sundry intrigues at Peterburg, and among others, with the Countess of Bestucheff, wife to the prime-minister.

The King of Prussia, suspecting that Trenck's influence at Peterburg was employed to his disadvantage, some dishonest arts were used

by the Prussian minister to ruin him at that court. These arts, however, were not successful; but Trenck nevertheless quitted Russia, and entered into the service of Austria. In 1754, when a captain of Austrian cavalry, being at Dantzig, the King of Prussia's agents, authorised by two magistrates of that city, who were attended by twenty grenadiers, seized him in bed, and conveyed him to the city prison, from which he was soon after sent to Berlin. He was afterwards removed to the citadel of Magdeburg, where he was confined in a narrow dungeon, and allowed nothing but a pound and a half of ammunition bread per day, and a jug of water. He was not at this time put in irons; but having made some extraordinary efforts to escape, and these efforts being discovered, the King, when he came to a review at Magdeburg, went and visited a fort there, called the Star-fort, where he commanded a new cell to be made for the confinement of Trenck, " prescribing him "self," as the Baron says, "the "kind of irons by which he was to "be secured."

Of his second dungeon, to which he was removed as soon as it was ready, he has given the following description: "In breadth it was about "eight feet; in length ten."—"In a corner was a seat, four bricks "broad, on which I might sit, and "recline against the wall. Opposite "the ring to which I was fastened, "the light was admitted through a "semicircular aperture, one foot "high, and two in diameter. This "aperture ascended to the centre of "the wall, which was six feet thick, "and at this central part was a "close iron grating, from which, "outward, the aperture descended, "and its two extremities were again "secured by strong iron bars. My "dungeon was built in the ditch of "the fortification, and the aperture, "by which the light entered, was so "covered by the wall of the rampart, "that, instead of finding immediate "passage, the light only gained ad-

"mission by reflexion. This, considering the smallness of the aperture, "and the impediments of grating "and iron bars, must needs make the "obscurity great, yet my eyes, in "time, became so accustomed to this "glimmering, that I could see a "mouse run. In winter, however, "when the sun did not shine into the "ditch, it was eternal night with "me. Between the bars and the "grating was a glass window, with "a small central casement, which "might be opened to admit air.— "The name of Trenck was inscribed "upon the wall, and under my feet "was a tomb-stone, with the name "of Trenck also cut on it, and carv- "ed with a death's head. The doors "to my dungeon were double, of "oak, two inches thick: without "these was an open space, or front "cell, in which was a window, and "this space was likewise shut in by "double doors. The ditch, in which "this dreadful den was built, was "inclosed on both sides by pali- "sadoes, twelve feet high, the key "of the door of which was entrusted "to the officer of the guard, it be- "ing the King's intention to prevent "all possibility of speech, or com- "munication with the sentinels."

He has also given the following ac- count of the manner in which he was ironed in this new dungeon. "Enormous chains were fixed to my ankle "at one end, and at the other to a "ring which was incorporated in "the wall. This ring was three "feet from the ground, and only al- "lowed me to move about two or "three feet to the right and left. "They next riveted another huge "iron ring, of a hand's breadth, "round my naked body, to which "hung a chain, fixed into an iron "bar, as thick as a man's arm. This

"bar was two feet in length, and at "each end of it was a handcuff.— "The only motion I had the power "to make, was that of jumping up- "ward, or swinging my arms, to "procure myself warmth. When "more accustomed to these fetters,* "I was likewise capable of moving "from side to side, but this pained "my thin-bones."

After his confinement in this new dungeon, the Baron was allowed as much bread as he could eat, and, notwithstanding his fetters, he continued to make a variety of astonishing attempts to escape, some of which proved almost successful. When it was discovered that he found means even to disencumber himself of his chains, a large iron collar was put about his neck, and connected with the chains at his feet by additional heavy links. The whole of his fetters amounted to the weight of sixty-eight pounds. Though none of his efforts to obtain his liberty were finally successful, they greatly contributed to the preservation of his health and spirits. He was not released till nine months after the peace concluded in 1763, and for this he was indebted to an application made in his favor by the Austrian ambassador. He was conveyed out of the Prussian dominions in a covered waggon, in which he was conducted to Prague, without being suffered to speak to any person upon the road, and from Prague he immediately proceeded to Vienna.

In 1765 Frederick established an insurance office at Berlin, an institution which he justly supposed might be very beneficial to his subjects. About this time he established also the military academy at the same place, and he likewise founded another institution, called the School of Noble Cadets, and an orphan house at Pots-

* In the year 1756, an iron collar was added to his other fetters; and he says, that "the chains that descended from the neck-collar were obliged to be supported first "with one hand, and then with the other; for, if thrown behind, they would have "strangled me, and, if hanging forward, occasioned most excessive head aches." Among other barbarities which were exercised towards him, one was, ordering the sentinels to call him every quarter of an hour, and thereby to prevent his sleeping for any long time together. This inhuman practice was continued four years.

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dam. Besides these he established an East-India company at Embden, with liberty to trade to all parts of the East-Indies; but this company was not successful, and several of Frederick's efforts to establish commerce in his dominions were rendered abortive, by injudicious taxes, monopolies, and various restrictions.

In 1768 Frederick made a donation of three hundred thousand crowns to the inhabitants of Silesia. This money was distributed among those persons, who, by the consequences of the late war, or other unfortunate events, had been reduced to the necessity of contracting debts, or of mortgaging their estates. The same year also he made some new arrangements in his army, and in particular, increased the number of men in all his companies of infantry.

In 1769 Frederick again made a journey into Silesia, and on the 25th of August, that year, he received a visit from the Emperor of Germany, at Neiss, in that duchy. They behaved to each other in a very cordial and friendly manner; spent two nights and a day together; and had more than one private interview. They parted with the strongest professions of mutual regard, esteem, and confidence. When they dined together, some of their general officers dined with them. Among these was General Laudhon, who had greatly distinguished himself against the King of Prussia, and who was going to place himself at the lower end of the table, but the King called out to him, "I must beg, General Laudhon, that you will do me the favor to come and sit by me. I am much better pleased to have you on my side than opposite to me."

Among other objects of a pacific nature, to which the King attended after the restoration of peace, one was, the embellishment of Berlin and Potsdam, and building in both these cities a great number of new edifices. He erected every year, at his own expence, forty houses in the former, and thirty-two in the latter.

They were constructed after the King's own plans, and his principal architect attended to receive his orders on that head, on a fixed day in every year. He also erected in the same manner, every year, a certain number of houses, and often other buildings, at Konigsberg, Breslau, and other towns of his dominions. Frederick likewise erected a new palace at *Sans-Souci*, near Potsdam, which Dr. Burney says appeared to him to be one of the most elegant and perfect that he had seen in Europe. The ground on which it stands, was before a morass, and the whole country around was naked and barren. With reference to the King's well known infidelity, and to the rapidity with which this palace was constructed, and the face of the country changed, a German wit said, "It must be allowed that his Majesty performs miracles, though he believes none."

As the King of Prussia had received a visit from the Emperor of Germany in Silesia, in the year 1769, in the following year he paid a visit to the Emperor, in his turn, at Neustadt, in Moravia. It was on the 3d of September that Frederick arrived at the Emperor's camp; the meeting between these two great princes was apparently attended with much mutual esteem and regard, and a grand review was made of the Austrian troops for the King's entertainment. But at this period Frederick's own troops were not wholly inactive. On the 29th of the same month, a body of Prussians made a sudden irruption, at two o'clock in the morning, into the territories of Dantzick, where they surprised several of the outposts, seized the cannon, and made ten prisoners. The pretence for this invasion of the territories of Dantzick was, that the magistrates had forbidden the Prussian recruiting officers to levy men within their free city, and that the post-master had refused to pass, without examination, some casks of silver, which came for the Prussian resident. It was remarked, that the complaint founded on the

the last of these causes was the more groundless, as the post office belonged to the King of Poland, and the magistrates had no authority over it.

The inhabitants of Dantzick, having secured their gates, immediately applied to all the foreign ministers to write to their respective courts, to solicit protection or intercession in their favor; but nothing effectual was done in their behalf, and the result was, that in about a month after, the city, upon agreeing to pay seventy-five thousand ducats, and subscribing to certain conditions, was admitted to depose two counsellors to make a submission to his Prussian Majesty.

Frederick indeed seemed now so much determined to increase the population of his dominions, that he adopted very extraordinary methods for that purpose. His troops entered Great Poland in the year 1771, and during the space of that year, he is said to have carried off from that province and the neighborhood, at a moderate computation, twelve thousand families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, his Majesty also published an edict in that province, commanding every person under the severest penalties to take in payment for forage, provisons, corn, and horses, the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nominal value, or ducats, struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. *By this honest and masterly manœuvre,* it is said, that he gained, at the lowest calculation, *seven millions of dollars!!*

Besides these injudiciable actions of which the King of Prussia was guilty, he had also a great share, and is said to have been the prime mover in the partition of Poland. The divided and unhappy state of that country rendered it the more easy for the usurping powers to succeed in this disgraceful transaction. The Polish nation was involved in a civil war, which had taken its rise from the bigotry of the Romish clergy, and more than two hundred thousand of the Poles had been also carried off by the pestilence. At this distressful period, the project of the partition was formed, and some of the finest provinces of Poland were dismembered from the republic, and divided among the usurping powers. At first they found it difficult to settle their respective claims; but it was at length agreed, that Polish Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, should be allotted to the King of Prussia; almost all the south-eastern parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt works at Wielitzka, were appropriated to the Empress Queen; and a large district of the country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, was taken possession of by the Empress of Russia.

The history of mankind cannot, perhaps, exhibit a more atrocious violation of justice than the partition of Poland; and the share which the King of Prussia had in it, must stamp his character, notwithstanding the high encomiums bestowed upon him by the minions of kingly power, with indelible infamy and disgrace. When princes are successful, and dazzle the eyes of mankind by grand warlike exploits, we are too apt to dignify them with the appellation of *heroes* and *great men*; but it evidently appears that throughout life, the gratification of his vanity, of which he had no inconsiderable share, and the extension of his dominions, were the grand springs by which Frederick's conduct was actuated. When his interest was concerned,

cerned, oppression and injustice were in his eyes of little consideration.

The death of the Elector of Bavaria, which happened in the year 1777, gave rise to a new contest between the King of Prussia and the court of Vienna. Maximilian Joseph was succeeded both in the electoral dignity and his dominions at large, by Charles Theodore, the Elector Palatine of the Rhine; but as this Prince was in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and had no issue, the large possessions of the double electorate, with the dignity belonging to one, were in the expectation of his apparent heir the Duke of Deuxponts. A claim, however, was set up in behalf of the Empress Queen, to a great part of the electorate, founded upon obsolete titles, but which appear to have been very ill grounded. This claim was supported by an army of sixty thousand men; and the new Elector, finding himself incapable of opposing so great a force, entered into a treaty with the ministers of the Empress Queen, and a convention was concluded, by which the Elector, in order to keep part of his new possessions, gave up the better half of them to the court of Vienna. This arrangement giving umbrage to the Duke of Deuxponts, he formally protested against it, and the King of Prussia thought proper to espouse his cause. Frederick, therefore, after publishing a manifesto at Berlin in vindication of his conduct, marched through Silegia with his army, and penetrating the mountains of Bohemia, seized the city and castle of Nachod, on the confines of that kingdom, where he fixed his head quarters, in the month of July, 1778. In the mean time, the Emperor, who commanded the Austrian troops in person, had taken an advantageous post at Koningsgratz, where he was strongly encamped. Several movements were afterwards made by these great armies, but no action of any consequence took place, and a negotiation was set on foot, which at length ended in the peace of Teschen, concluded on the 13th of May, 1779.

By that treaty it was agreed, that the court of Vienna should renounce its pretensions to Bavaria, retaining only the district of Burghausen; that six millions of florins should be paid to the Elector of Saxony, as an equivalent; and that a recognition should be made of the right of the House of Brandenburg to re-unite the margravates of Franconia to their electoral dominions after the extinction of the reigning family.

During the course of this short war, the King had at one time his head quarters at Frankenstein, in Upper Silegia. He lodged in the house of a widow, far advanced in years, who on his arrival shewed him into her best apartment, in which were portraits of her six sons, who had all fallen in battle, and in the King's service. Frederick seemed to view these pictures with some emotion, and fixing his attention more particularly upon one of them, he said, "Had this brave officer lived, he would now have been one of my generals." He then inquired into the circumstances of the family, and, hearing that the lady had still two daughters unprovided for, he made her a present of six thousand ducats.

Among the different manufactures which were patronised and encouraged by Frederick, he was particularly attentive to the silk manufacture, and during his reign it made a very rapid progress. He endeavoured also to introduce the English manufactures into his dominions; and with that view he gave ten thousand crowns, in the year 1784, for machines to carry on the Manchester manufactures; and in 1785, four thousand crowns towards establishing a manufactory of English earthen ware at Konigberg.

Towards the close of his reign he issued an order, that when any of his subjects came near him, or had any thing to present to him, they should not approach him kneeling: that, he said, being an improper posture on any other occasion than that of addressing the Supreme Being.—About the same time also he made a second

second reform in the laws, and the administration of justice, under the direction of the High Chancellor De Carmar, by which the principal management of law suits was left to the judges, and the influence of the advocates was greatly diminished.

Frederick had now attained to the age of seventy-four years, and though he possessed the same powers of understanding as ever, his body was not equally vigorous as his mind. At this period, he became extremely dropical, without being sensible himself that he

had the disorder; but he continued to apply himself to public business with his usual assiduity.

In the month of June, 1786, finding his disorders encrease, he sent for Dr. Zimmermann, well known by his ingenious writings, in order to attend him as a physician. This gentleman was treated by him with more respect than he was accustomed to shew towards those of the medical profession; but his assistance was too late, and about two weeks after the doctor left him he breathed his last.

(To be continued.)

A SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE RIVER TAMAR.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL VIEW.

THE Tamar, called by Ptolemy *Tamara*, rises in the northern part of Cornwall, about three miles from the sea. It issues from the summit of a moor, from whence as the ground declines towards the north, the water flows in that direction, and forms the river Torridge, which is navigable a little above the town of Bideford, while another part of the water descending to the south, forms the beginning of the Tamar. At the distance of ten miles from its source it becomes a considerable river, and gives name to the small parish and village north of Tamerton, where a stone bridge is built over its stream. In its course it receives several small streams, particularly the Aterey, so that at Polstun-Bridge it is considerable, both on account of its width, and the rapidity of its current. As it continues its course, the river is increased by additional streams. At

Stoke-Lynsland, not far south of Grey-stone, it passes under a strong stone bridge, called Horse-Bridge. The last bridge on this river is in the parish of Culstock, to which the tide nearly reached in the time of Henry VIII. though it was navigable no farther than Morleham, about two miles below Culstock-Bridge, and small barks still come up to Morleham. Five miles lower the Tamar receives the Tavy on the east, and becomes a spacious harbour; and passing within half a mile of the ancient borough of Saltash, is joined by the Lynher creek and river; then passing strait forward forms the noble harbour of Hammonze; and after a course of forty miles from its source falls into the sea at Mount Edgecumbe. On this river there are a great many beautiful and picturesque views, one of which, taken about a mile below the Ware, is given in the annexed plate.

EXTRAORDINARY INSTANCE OF AFFECTION IN A CAT.

SOME weeks ago, a small dog, belonging to Mr. Cooper, grocer, of Old-street, being at the door, he was set upon by another of the canine species, accidentally passing. The consequence was that a contest ensued, which continued a considerable time, and the noise made occasioned a number of people to stop; who, to their great surprise, saw a cat come forth from the same house, with all the

distortions, &c. which that animal makes use of when enraged, and after two or three circular motions, by way of approaching the combatants, she absolutely flew upon the strange cat, who immediately desisted; while the cat, with the utmost composure, returned into the house, attended by her canine companion, with whom, it is said, she was brought up, and lives in the greatest harmony.

WILLIAM HAMILTON REID.

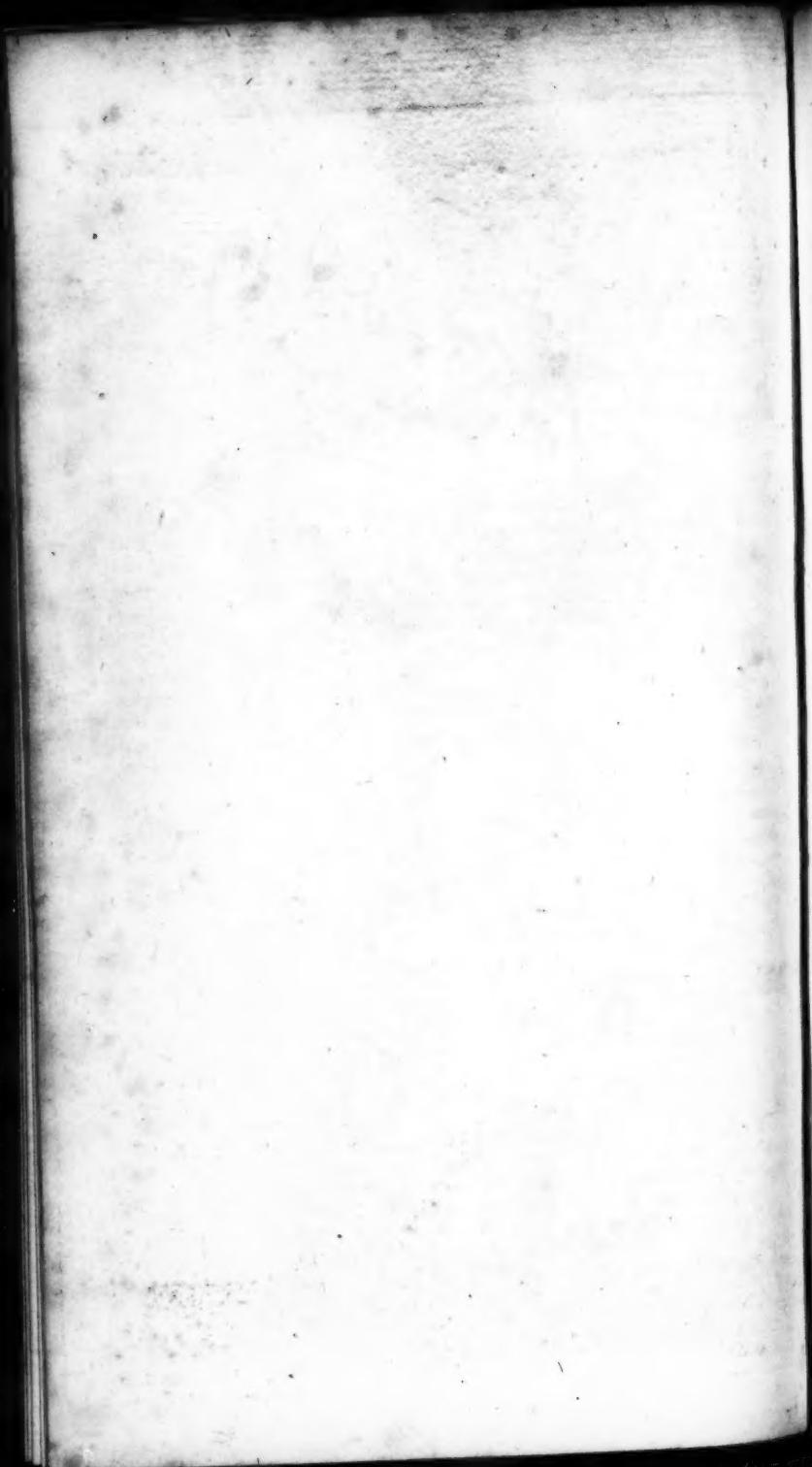


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HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF DISCOVERIES CONCERNING THE RAINBOW.

[Continued from Page 105.]

OF all the optical appearances in nature, the rainbow is, perhaps, the most striking. Accordingly, we have found that it has always engaged the attention of philosophers; and we have seen new light thrown upon it in every successive period.

Although all the capital circumstances of this phenomenon were fully explained by Sir Isaac Newton, yet some particulars were left to be observed in this period; especially with respect to the varieties in which it has been exhibited, some of the most striking of which I shall here give an account of, together with the conjectures that have been made concerning their causes, as they cannot fail to give pleasure to any reader.

Of those who adopted the principles of Sir Isaac Newton, Dr. Halley was the first who took much pains with this subject of the rainbow. We have seen that the inner bow is formed by those rays which suffer two refractions with one reflection between them. Here nature stops, or rather our organs are not sensible enough to perceive more rainbows; but the mind of man is able to pursue the subject much farther, and to ascertain the dimensions of those rainbows which would be formed by 3, 4, or more reflections; and Dr. Halley has discussed this subject in the Philosophical Transactions for 1700; in which he always lays down a direct method for finding the diameter of the bow when the refraction is given.

The result of this investigation was, that the first bow is produced by those rays whose angle of incidence is such, that the double of the refracted angle corresponding to it is as great as possible. In the second bow the excess of the triple of that angle is as great as possible. In the third bow, the quadruple, &c. so that the dimensions on any possible bow

may be determined by finding an angle of incidence as such, as that a certain given multiple of the corresponding angle of refraction shall exceed it by a quantity the greatest possible.

From these *data* he finds that the first bow has a radius of $42^{\circ} 30'$, the second $51^{\circ} 55'$, both opposite to the sun; but that the third would be $40^{\circ} 20'$, and the fourth $45^{\circ} 33'$, from that luminary, which is so near the sun, that on this account, probably, they are not visible to us. At least this must happen very rarely, and only in particular circumstances. The same problem has, likewise, been considered by later mathematicians, particularly M. Herman Bernoulli, and the Marquis De Courtivron. Another calculation of the angles into which light is refracted in the formation of the rainbow, was made by Dr. Pemberton, and may be seen Phil. Trans. ab. p. 141, &c.

I shall begin my account of remarkable rainbows with that which Dr. B. Langwith describes, who observed several series of colours, which increased the rainbow to a breadth far exceeding what had been determined by calculation. The most perfect of these appearances was that which he saw Aug. 21, 1722, about half an hour past five o'clock in the evening of that day, the weather being temperate, and the wind at north-east; the colours of the primary rainbow were as usual, only the purple was very much inclining to red, and well defined. Under this was an arch of green, the upper part of which inclined to a yellow, the lower to a more dusky green. Under this were alternately, two arches of reddish purple, and two of green; and under all was a faint appearance of another purple arch, which vanished and returned several times so quick that he could not fix his eyes steadfastly upon

upon it. Thus the order of the colours was

1. Red; orange, yellow, green,
light blue, deep blue, purple.
2. Light green, dark green, purple.
3. Green, purple.
4. Green, faint vanishing purple.

So that there were four orders of colours, and perhaps the beginning of a fifth, for he made no question but that we call the purple, was a mixture of the purple of each of the upper series, with the red of the next below it, and that the green was a mixture of the intermediate colours. He wrote not this barely upon the credit of his own eyes, for there was a clergyman and four other gentlemen in company, whom he desired to view the colours attentively, and all agreed that they appeared in the manner now described.

There are two things, he says, which well deserve to be taken notice of, as they may perhaps direct us in some measure to the solution of this curious phenomenon.

1. That the breadth of the first series so far exceeds that of any of the rest. As near as he could judge, it was equal to them all taken together.

2d. That he had never observed those inner orders of colours in the lower parts of the rainbow, though they were often incomparably more vivid than the upper parts, under which the colours appeared. He took notice of these so very often, that he thought it could hardly be considered as accidental, and that if it should prove true in general, it would bring the disquisition into a narrow compass, as it would shew that this effect depends upon some property which the drops retain whilst they are in the upper part of the air, but which they lose as they come lower, and are more mixed with one another.

M. Bouguer frequently saw this phenomenon when he was upon the mountains of Peru, where the sky is often extremely serene. It appeared to him that this circumstance of serenity was necessary on the side of the sun;

but that it were more necessary that the sky should be quite dark on the opposite side. The colours of the second bow were in the same order as those of the first, and the red of the second was well separated from the violet of the other; so that the two bows were better distinguished than they were when Dr. Langwith saw them. M. Bouguer thought that he could sometimes perceive faint traces of a third bow, immediately within the second.

The extraordinary rainbow which was seen by M. L. Gentil, the 18th November, 1756, seems to have been of the same nature of this which was observed by Dr. Langwith. Under the two common bows he saw two other large bows, one below the other. The upper of these immediately touched the violet of the common bow. These two bows were something farther from one another than their breadth, which might be a little more than the third of the breadth of the inner bow. They were blue, and of the same lustre with the blue of the inner bow. He also thought that the space which they occupied was nearly of the same extent with the inner bow.

Upon another occasion the same gentleman and M. de Fouchy saw, under the violet of the common bow, a space without colour, as broad as the green, as lively as that of the bow.

Dr. Pemberton has attempted the explanation of this remarkable appearance on the Newtonian doctrine, of the fits of easy reflection and transmission; but he goes upon the supposition that the differently coloured rays have their separate fits, on their arrival at the surface of any medium, without any regard to the thicknesses of it; where it is plain, that in such a case, all kinds of rays are reflected or transmitted promiscuously.

It is most probable that these colours are formed in very minute drops of water, or vapour, intermixed with the larger drops. That their founda-

tion depends upon the same principle with the colours of thin plater, and that they are similar to those of several kinds of halos. Dr. Pemberton himself observes, that it is most likely, that these additional rings of colours are formed in the vapour of the cloud, which the air, being put in motion by the fall of the rain, may carry down along with the larger drops. This, he says, may be the reason why these colours appear under the upper part of the bow only, this vapour not descending very low. As a farther confirmation of this, these colours, he observes, are seen strongest when the rain falls from very black clouds, which cause the fiercest rains; by the fall of which the air will be most agitated.*

Dr. Langwith once saw a rain-bow lying on the ground, the colours of which were almost as lively as those of the common rainbow. It was extended several hundred yards, and the colours were so strong, that it might have been seen much farther, if it had not been terminated by a bank, and the hedge of a field. The more remarkable particulars in this bow were, 1st. that the figure of it was not round, but oblong. 2d. That the convex part of it was turned towards the eye, and the vertex at a small distance before him; and 3dly, that the colours took up less space, and were much more lively in those parts of the bow that were near him, than in those that were at a distance.

The inverted arches which generally accompany parhelia, M. Weidler says, have been seen sometimes without them; and he takes notice that M. Tachard, in his account of his voyage to Siam, always observed that when two waves dashed against one another, so as to throw up small drops of water, if his eye was elevated a little above them, he always saw an inverted bow; whereas when the drops fell back again, or when rain

descended in the same place, there was a rainbow in its usual position.

Appearances like these, Descartes explained by the reflection of the rays of the sun from the surface of the water; but M. Weidler thinks this account sufficient, and says that these appearances will be produced whenever the rays of the sun (which fall upon drops of water, so that they would have come to the axis of the rainbow after two refractions and one reflection) fall upon the eye, placed beyond this of the concourse of the rays with the axis, under half that angle. This account is very general and obscure, and indeed the author seems not to have examined it thoroughly, as he gives no figures, to shew how, by the progress of the rays, these appearances may be produced in the manner that he describes.

M. Celsius describes a third rainbow, larger than the two others, and intersecting them, which he saw in Dalecarlia in 1743; which appears from the circumstances, to have been produced by the reflection of the sun from a river. Similar to this was that which Dr. Halley saw at Chester, in 1698; and which he accounts for in the same manner. The person who first suggested this method of explaining these eccentric bows was M. Etienne, Canon of Chartres, after having described a rainbow cut by a kind of a broken and circular chevron, of the same nature as the primary bow, and upon the same level, about 150 paces from him. This observation was made the 10th day of August, 1665, at half past six in the evening.

M. G. Edwards describes a rainbow which must have been formed by the exhalations from the city of London, when the sun had been set twenty minutes, and consequently the centre of the bow above the horizon. The colours were the same as in the common rainbow, but fainter. ‡

* Phil. Trans. ab. Vol. 6. p. 140.

‡ Phil. Trans. Vol. 50, p. 294.

OF THE COCHINEAL INSECT.

THE cochineal, to which we owe our beautiful scarlet and purple colours, has not yet been found anywhere but in Mexico. It is an insect of the size of a bug. The two sexes are distinct, as in most other animals. The female, fixed upon a point of the plant, almost from the first instant of its birth, remains always attached to it by a kind of trunk, and presents to the eye only an hemispherical crust, which covers all other parts. This covering is changed twice in twenty-five days, and is sprinkled over with a white and thick dust, which is immiscible with water. At this period, which is that of puberty, the male, which is much smaller, and more lightly made, issues out of a farinaceous tube, by means of wings with which he is provided. He flutters over the immoveable females, and fixes upon each of them. The same female is thus visited by several males, who perish soon after fecundation. The bulk of the female visibly enlarges, till a drop of liquid, which escapes from under her, shews that the eggs, which are in great numbers, will soon make their appearance. The little insects burst their covering at the time of their birth, and soon spread themselves over the plant, to choose a favourable spot to fix upon. They particularly endeavour to shelter themselves from the east wind. Accordingly, the shrub upon which they live, when viewed on that side, appears quite green, while upon the opposite side, which the insects have preferred, it is white.

This shrub, which is known by the name of nopal, or Indian fig, is about five feet high. Its stem is fleshy, large, flattened, downy, a little rough, and covered with clusters of thorns, regularly disposed upon its surface. It branches out very much, and grows narrow, as well as its branches, at every point of ramification: this gives to each portion of the plant thus made

narrow, the form of an oval, thick, and thorny leaf. It hath no other leaves but these. Its flowers, scattered over the young stems, are composed of a scaly calix, which supports several petals and stamens. The pistil, surmounted with a single style, and concealed, at the bottom of the calyx, grows along with it into a fruit that is fit for eating; it resembles a fig, and is full of seeds, fixed in a kind of reddish pulp.

There are several species of nopal. Those which have a smooth stem, with a number of thorns placed too close to each other, are not fit for the breeding of the cochineal. These insects thrive well only on that sort which hath few thorns and a downy surface proper to give them a firmer footing. Wind and cold rain, as well as too much damp, are injurious to the plant.

The mode of lopping the trees is not advantageous. It is better to replant it every six years, by putting several pieces of the stems into cavities of some depth, disposed in a quincunx, or a square, at the distance of six or eight feet from each other. A spot thus planted, and distinguished by the name of NOPALRY, is usually no more than one or two acres in extent, seldom three. Each acre produces as much as two quintals of cochineal, and one man is sufficient to cultivate it; he must weed frequently, but with precaution, in order not to disturb the insect, which would not survive if it were displaced. The cultivator must also take care to get rid of the animals that would destroy the plant; the most formidable of which is a caterpillar, which makes its way even through the inside of the plant, and attacks the insect underneath.

Eighteen months after the plantation, the nopal is covered with cochineals: but in order to distribute them more regularly over the whole plant, and to prevent them from injuring each other, from their proximity, small nests, made of the outside rind

of the cocoa, open to the west, and filled with twelve or fifteen females ready to lay their eggs, are fixed to spines at certain distances. The little ones which come out, fix themselves on the nopal, and attain to their utmost growth in two months, which is the limited duration of their life. They are then gathered, and this operation is renewed every two months from October to May. The crop may be less valuable if it should be mixed with any other kind of cochineal of a lower price, or if there be a great quantity of males, which are in little estimation, because they are less, and that they fall off before the time. This crop is to be gathered some days before the laying of the eggs, either to prevent the loss of the eggs, which are rich in colour, or to hinder the little ones from fixing upon a plant which is already exhausted, and must be left to itself for a few months. Beginning then by the bottom of the plant, the cochineals are successively detached with a knife, and are made to fall into a basin placed underneath, one of the edges of which being flattened, adapts itself exactly to the plant, which is afterwards cleaned with the same knife, or with a cloth.

Immediately before the rainy season comes on, in order to prevent the total destruction of the cochineals, which might be occasioned by the unwholesomeness of the air, the branches of the nopal, loaded with infant insects, are cut off. These branches are laid up in the houses, where they retain their freshness, as all mucilaginous plants do. Here the cochineals thrive during the bad season. As soon as that is passed, they are placed on trees, where the vivifying freshness of the air soon makes them propagate.

The wild cochineal, a different species from the fine, or mesteque cochineal, we have been speaking of, but cultivated in the same places, and on the same plant, does not require so much care and precaution; it is a more hardy insect, and bears the in-

juries of the air better. The crop of it is consequently less variable in the produce, and may be gathered all the year. This insect differs from the other, inasmuch as it is more voracious, less abounding in colour, and enveloped in a kind of cotton, which extends two lines all around it. This species multiplies more readily, spreads further and faster without any assistance; so that a nopalry is soon covered with them. As its produce is more certain, as its price is equivalent to two thirds of that of the finer sort, and as it propagates upon all the species of nopal, it may be cultivated with success, but separately; because if it were placed near the other, it would starve it, and therefore might also be smothered under the down. This species is also found in Peru, upon a very prickly nopal, which is extremely common there.

As soon as the cochineals are gathered, they are plunged into hot water, to kill them. There are different ways of drying them. The best is to expose them to the sun for several days, by which means they acquire a red brown colour, which the Spaniards call *renegrida*. The second method is to put them into an oven, where they assume a greyish colour, streaked with veins of purple, which hath given them the name of *jasseada*. But the most imperfect, which is what the Indians most generally practice, consists in putting them on plates along with their cakes of maize; in which process they are frequently burnt, and called *negra*.

Though the cochineal be classed in the animal kingdom, the species of all others the most likely to corrupt, yet it never spoils. Without any other care than merely that of keeping it in a box, it hath been preserved in all its virtue for ages.

This valuable production would probably succeed in different parts of Mexico; but hitherto scarce any besides the province of Oaxaca, hath seriously attended to it. The crops have been more plentiful upon a barren soil, which is beneficial to the nopal;

nopal, than upon a foil naturally fertile; they have experienced less accidents in an agreeable mild exposure, than in places where the heat and cold were more sensibly felt. The Mexi-

cans were acquainted with the cochineal before the destruction of their empire. They made use of it to paint their houses, and to dye their cotton.

HISTORY OF CHEMISTRY.

FIRST EPOCH.

Origin of Chemistry among the Egyptians.

THE origin of chemistry is as obscure as that of the arts and sciences in general. We look upon Tubal Cain, who lived before the deluge, to have been the first chemist; but working upon metals was his only employment. He appears to be the person meant by Vulcan in the ancient fable.

We ought to assign the true origin of this science to the ancient Egyptians. The first person among them mentioned as a chemist is named, according to Abbé Lenglet du Fresnoy, *Thot, or Athotis*, surnamed *Hermes, or Mercury*, son to Mezraim, or Osiris, and step son of Cham. He became king of Thebes. Siphoas, the second king of Egypt, was likewise a philosopher. He lived 800 years after Athotis, and 1900 before Christ. The Greeks have called him *HERMES, or Mercury Trismegistus*. He is the second Mercury. We regard him as the inventor of physics. He has written forty-two books upon philosophy, in which he does not seem to treat of chemistry, although this science has been called, after him, the *philosophy of Hermes*. In Egypt there was a temple dedicated to Vulcan, and sacred to alchemy.

The Israelites learned chemistry from the Egyptians. Moses is ranked among the chemists, only because he dissolved the golden calf, by means, as we suspect, of liver of sulphur.

Democritus of Abdera, who lived about 500 years before Christ, travelled into Egypt, Chaldea, Persia, and other countries. There, as we

imagine, he learned chemistry. Tho' born of a father who was rich enough to entertain at his house Xerxes and all his suite, he returned very poor into his own country, and was taken notice of by his brother Damasius. He retired into a garden before the walls of the city, where he employed himself in examining plants and precious stones. Cicero assures us, that in order not to be diverted by external objects, he scorched his eyes by fixing them on the rays of the sun, reflected from a very finely polished plate of copper. This fact is denied by Plutarch. Pliny looks upon the science of Democritus as wonderful.

They suppose that chemistry, which was known to all the Egyptian priests, had been constantly practised by those nations, until, according to the account of Suidas. Dioclesian formed the design of burning their books of chemistry, with the view of reducing them more easily under subjection.

SECOND EPOCH.

Chemistry among the Arabians.

After a succession of many ages, during which it is impossible to trace the progress of chemistry amidst the revolutions that empires have undergone, we find marks of this science among the Arabians, who cultivated it with success. During the dynasty of Achemides or Abasides, the sciences, which had been forgotten for a long time, were revived.

Almanzor, the second calif, studied astronomy. Harum Raschid, the fifth calif, and cotemporary with Charlemagne, caused several Greek books which related to chemistry, to be translated. In the ninth century, Gober, of Thus in Chorafan, a province

vince of Persia, wrote three treatises upon chemistry, in which even now we find very good things. His best work is intitled *Summa Perfectionis Mysterii*.

In the tenth century, Rhafes, physician to the hospital at Bagdad, first applied chemistry to medicine. His merit and his knowledge raised him to the office of grand vizir; but his debauches deprived him of that high preferment.

THIRD EPOCH.

Chemistry passes from the East to the West.

The art of making gold, a species of folly which entered the heads of chemists, made a noise for a long time, according to the authors who have written its history; but it was carried to its greatest height from the eleventh to the sixteenth century.—The facts in chemistry which the Egyptians found, and the Greeks collected, and the Arabs applied to medicine, centered among the four nations, who, during the Crusades, transported themselves into the East, namely, the Germans, the English, the French, and the Italians; and every one of these nations was very soon filled with men who searched for the philosophers stone. As the immense labours to which they have devoted themselves, have contributed to the advancement of chemistry, we ought to know the particular men that were the most distinguished among them.

In the thirteenth century, Albert le Grand, a Dominican of Cologne, and consequently of Ratisbon, passed for a magician, and wrote a book full of alchemical processes.

Roger Bacon, born anno 1214, near Somersethire, studied at Oxford. He came to Paris to learn mathematics, and the art of medicine. To him we ascribe several inventions,

any of them sufficient to immortalize his fame; such as the camera obscura, the telescope, and gunpowder; he had a moving chariot, a machine for flying, and a head which spoke. He was a Cordelier, and was named *the Wonderful Doctor*. He was accused of magic, and was imprisoned by his brethren. At last he retired into a house at Oxford, where he laboured, it is said, at alchemy. Borrichius saw this house, which still bore his name.

Arnauld de Villeneuve was born at Languedoc, anno 1245, and died anno 1310, and studied medicine at Paris for 30 years. He commented on the school of Salem. The alchemists regard him as one of their great masters. Anno 1664, Borrichius saw an alchemist in Languedoc, who was descended from him.

In the fourteenth century Raymond Lully, who was born at Majorca in 1235, came to Paris in 1281, and joined himself to Arnauld de Villeneuve, with whom he became famous. Robert Constantine says, that he saw one of the nobles of the rose, who was astonished at the gold which he made in the Tower of London, in the reign of Edward the 5th, anno 1312—13. He wrote some books on alchemy, in which we find some facts respecting acids and metals.

In the 15th century, Basil Valentine, a Benedictine, of Erfort, in Germany, was instructed in medicine and natural history. He finished a work on anatomy, to which he gives the pompous name of *Curus Triumphalis Antimonii*, and which has been commented upon by Kerkringius.

Isaac les Hollandois, father and son, persons little known, composed works that are praised by Boerhaave; in which it appears that they were acquainted with aquafortis and aqua-regia.

(To be continued.)

HISTORICAL ANECDOTE. INSTANCE OF FILIAL PIETY.

THE scenic plays at Rome, which were introduced about the year 396, were performed in a part of the Circus, near the banks of the Tiber, which happening to overflow, the people concluded, that the remedy was not efficacious to appease the wrath of Heaven. They therefore revived an old religious ceremony, which was said to have proved effectual in the like calamity. This was, the driving of a nail by a Dictator in that part of the wall of *Jupiter Capitolinus's* temple, which divided it from the chapel of *Minerva* under the same roof. A Dictator was accordingly named for the performing of this ceremony; and the person raised to that dignity was *T. Manlius*, who from his haughty spirit, and imperious air, was surnamed *Imperiosus*. He chose *L. Pinarius Natta* for his general of the horse; and, with great pomp and solemnity, drove the nail; but the proud Dictator, unwilling to have the whole business of his office confined to one religious ceremony, ordered troops to be raised, and even forced the citizens, though worn out with long sickness, to inflict themselves, under pretence that the *Hervici* were preparing to shake off the *Roman* yoke; but as he had been nominated Dictator to perform a religious ceremony, and not to command an army, the tribunes of the people repelled force with force, and at length forced him to lay down his office; which he had no sooner done, than he was cited by *M. Pomponius*, one of the tribunes, to answer before the people for the violence and cruelty which he had exercised over the citizens; for he had imprisoned some, and caused others to be barbarously whipped. He was also accused of treating inhumanly one of his own sons, by name *Titus*, whom he had confined to the country, obliging him to work among his slaves, for no other reason, but because he was of slow parts, and had an impediment in his speech.

Manlius had, according to custom, a copy of the heads of his accusation given him, and the usual time of twenty-seven days allowed him to prepare for his defence.

All were highly exasperated against so severe a Dictator, and so barbarous a father, except the son himself, who, moved with filial piety, and under the greatest concern that he should furnish matter of accusation against his father, resolved upon a most extraordinary method to deliver him. Early in the morning he left the country-house, to which he had been banished by his unnatural father, came to the city, and stopped no where till he got to the house of *Pomponius*, who was yet in bed. However, *Titus* was immediately admitted by the tribune, who did not doubt but he had come to discover to him some new instances of his father's severity. After they had saluted each other, *Titus* desired a private conference; every body was ordered to withdraw. Then the young man drawing out a poniard, and holding it close to the tribune's throat, threatened to stab him that moment, if he did not swear to desist from the prosecution he was carrying on against his father. *Pomponius* was so terrified, that he readily swore whatever the other was pleased to dictate; and thinking himself obliged to comply with an involuntary obligation, dropped the prosecution. The people were not displeased at the bold enterprise of a son in favour of a father, by whom he had been used in the basest manner.—They all extolled his piety; and not only for his sake, pardoned the father, but the same year raised him to one of the most important posts in the *Roman* army, that of legionary tribune.

NARRATIVE OF A SPECTRE.

[Continued from Page 125.]

THE town-clerk of Barnstaple, about the year 1639, was one of those whome the world called Puritans. He had an apprentice of about sixteen years of age, a sturdy, sluggish boy, stout enough; his name was Chamberlain. He complains often to his master that the house was haunted, and that he was frightened with apparitions. Sometimes he should see a young gentlewoman about 18 or 20 years old, all in white, with her hair dishevel'd, leading a very little child up and down the roome, which seemed as if it were but new-born. Otherwhiles she would carry it in her arms, but very dejectedly and disconsolately; and would look upon him in a very dolefull sorrowful manner. Ordinarily there would come an old man in his gown, and fit upon the bed by him, stareing him in the face, but speak never a word. These apparitions were very troublesome, and afflictive to him; his godly master hath him to severall worthy ministers, who doe converse with him, and advise him to speak to it, and one of them, to encourage him to doe it, watched some nights with him; but upon sight of the spectrum, was so affrighted himself, that he could not speak; nor would suffer the young Chamberlain to speak neither. But one night, as he was sitting up, writing some instrument, ingrossing a deed, he comes to a place which was interlined and blotted; and just then comes into the room, as he thoft, his master, who fits him down by him, wedging him in so that he could not in any wise get out. He reads the blurred paragraph over and over, but not being able to make any fence of it, he takes it up, and bespeaks, as he supposed, his master. Sir, saith he, would you be pleas'd to read this to me, for I cannot tell what fence to make of it? but there is no answer given him. He supposing his master

was busy in meditation, conceiv'de it good manners not to interrupt him, till haveing tir'de himself to pick out fence out of this blotted passage, which yet he could never doe, he takes it up the secnd time, and bespeaks his supposed master, Sir, saith he, would you be pleas'd . . . and with that, casting his eye upon him, soon discovers his mistake, and finds that it was the spectrum that had so long troubled him; he would now have given his life for an halfpenny. But plucking up his spirits, necessity and despair making him vallient, he boldly askes him, Sir, why doe you trouble me? To which the apparition replys, Don't be afraid, I will doe thee no harm. Well, what is that you will have? Why, saith the spectrum, doe thou goe into such a roome in the house, and dig there up the planching, and thou shalt find four boxes, one upon the other; in the first there is alsorts of wearing apparel of silkes, satins, vellvete (unless my memory faile me) for men and women. In the second, abundance of good table and bed linen, very choice and fine, of Holland and damask. In the third there was a fumme of money in gold and silver, ready coynde, and two silver potts, one full of gold, which together with all the rest of these buried goods, the apparition very liberally beftows upon him. But the other pott, he commands him upon paine of death not to look into it, but to take it and carry it into Wales, to Mrs. Betty, his master's daughter, and when he landed in Wales, at such a place as the apparition assigned him, he would meet him, and deliver him a further message for her; and he shoud dispatch all in ten days time; but he bade him look to it, that he did not so much as peep into that silver pott he was to carry over to her, for it was as much as his life was worth. * The

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young Chamberlain fairly promiseth to performe all that is injoyed him, and at parting the old spectrum tells him in the fourth and undermost box, there be two cups of a very pretious stone, enchaiste in gold, take them also, for I freely give them to thee, and so good night. Chamberlain is glad to be so fairly rid of this troublefome company, betakes himself immediately to his rest; and the next morning acquaints his master with his last night's adventure. His master bids him doe as he was commanded, and he had promised. Accordingly he gets into the parlor where he was directed, breaks up the boards of the planching, and finds all that the spectrum had discovered to him. He had in moneys near about twelve hundred pound, besides the goods, potts, and cups, of which we shall hear more anon. Never did any fellow's teeth water more upon a sweet bit, or his fingers itch to meddle with prohibited wares, than Chamberlain's eyes did to be looking into the forbidden silver pott. But the fear of the spectrum's menaces aw'de him, and kept him much against his will within bounds, tho' a thousand times a day he would be pedling about it to see what was in it. However at last he takes his opportunity with his pott, gets into a boat, crosseth over the bar of Barnstaple, and the Severn, into Wales, and arrives at the place appointed for his interview with the old apparition, which was about two miles and an half from the shore. At the first meeting the spectrum is very froward and angry, and tells him very chidingly, Sirrah, thou hast an earnest longing to be looking into this pott. Not I, I, saith Chamberlain. Nay, sirrah, but thou hast, saith the spectrum, and therefore don't lie unto me. But get thee presently unto thy master's daughter, and deliver her this message, which I now tell thee, and take her the pott. (What this message was, tho' he was earnestly importuned by Madam Fortescue, the widow of John Fortescue, of Spridlestone, in the parish of Brexton, and county

of Devonshire (from whome I had this relation in the year 1663, having bien min'. of that parish, and oued of it by the act of Bartholemew, the year before, to whome Chamberlin was steward for his manors in the town and parish of Collumpton, in the same county, yet would he never discover it, and craiv'de that lady's excuse, because he had married her sister, and it would but cast dung and reproach upon his wife's blood and family.) But to goe on with my story. Chamberlin had a very scrupulous conscience, and mooves this case to the devil. But what, and if Mrs. Betty will not take the pott? Then saith he leave it with her, and tell her from me that it were better she had and did take it; for she shall hear farther from me. Of this Mrs. Betty by the way. She was the dearest of her father's children, who was exceeding fond of her; but the having got a great belly, without an husband, in her father's house, her godly parents very severely reproofing her for her grievous sin again God and her own soul, and the scandal to religion, and infamy to her family, she, after she had gotten it away, as you before heard, quits her father's house, withdraws herself from her relations, and lives privately there in Wales for about seven years time, upon a portion that had bin left her either by an aunt or grandmother.

Well, Mr. Chamberlain the next morning, betwixt five and six, comes to her house, knocks at the door, and down comes a young gentlewoman of about 27, with her breasts naked, hair dishevel'd, in a very forlorn and disconsolate condition, and askes him what his busyness is. To whom Chamberlain replys, Mrs. Betty, I am commanded to deliver you such a message from a spirit that hath appeared unto me; and he tells her what was given him in charge: and delivers her the pot; she refuseth to take it, he tells her she must; she saith she will not, but he must carry it to him from whome he had it. Chamberlain then replys, Mrs. Betty, if you doe not, it will

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will be so much worse for you, for I am ordered to leave it with you.— With that, fetching a deep sigh, and smiting her breast, ah! saith she, 'twas not for nothing that I have bin so troubled this night. I was born to be miserable. And so without enquiring for her parents, or inviteing him in to drink, she takes the silver pott, and gets up into the chamber. Chamberlain having now discharged his trust and errand, immediately returns to the sea-side, where finding a boat ready for Barnstaple, he enters into it, and before it laucht off from land Mrs. Betty comes down into it also, and sits just against him, but all the time they were passing over, never speaks a word to him, nor he to her. As soon as they arrive at Barnstaple, he goes to a tavern, and she to her father's house, whome seeing, and her mother, she falls down upon her knees, and craves their blessing.— Great is the joy in the whole family at the presence of this stranger. But haveing fate and discourt with them about a quarter of an hour, she riseth, and takes a key and hammer that hung in the parlor, and goes up stairs, unlocks a chamber door, and then locks it again upon her, where she was heard beating out a board in the window; and then nayle it fast again. What the took thence is not known.

But haveing dispatcht her busines, she opens the door, locks it againe, comes down, puts the key and hammer in their places, and haveing fate and discourt with her parents a quarter of an hour more, she then begs their blessing, and departs, no intreaty or opportunity being able to detaine her a night, no nor so much as to drink with them, but over to Wales she will goe again, where indeed she returns, and lives about some fourteen moneths, and then falling sick, she calls her maid to her, telling her that she would make her her heir, and leave her 700l. after her death, which was now near at hand, provided she would follemently promise and swear to her, that as soon as she was buried, she would take the first opportunity to

goe over to Ireland, and carry that sylver pot (but she must not look into it) unto her uncle the Lord Bishop of Waterford, with her dying message to him, that if he did not repent of the sin he knew himself guilty of, he should be hanged. The mayd ingageth to her mistress to performe her will, who a few days after dieth. Mrs. Betty being dead, and her last will being nois'd abroad, a justice of peace near unto that place, being informed of this unusual guilt, and charge, sends out his warrant to bring this mayd, and the sylver pott before him; and being examined, she gives this relation of her mistresses last will and injunction on her, as I have related. The justice commands the cover to be taken off the pott, and looking into it, finds the skeleton and bones of a poor little new-born infant. This surprizeth his worship and all the spectators. Presently news of this is sent up to his Majesty King Charles the First, and the Privy Council, who dispatcheth an order to the Councill at Dublin, to seize the Bishop of Waterford: this and some other circumstances jumping in at the same time, caus'd his arraignment, conviction, condemnation, and execution. But as he had bin a sinner above many, so was he an extraordinary penitent. The relation of his repentance was writt and printed with his funeral sermon, which was preach'd by Dr. Bernard, but, as I said at first, without any the lefft notice taken, or mention made of his crime, or of this, which I have now, from most faithfull credible witnesses, inserted into this paper.

As for the great treasure which the devil so freely bestowed on Chamberlain; in these unhappy civil wars, the cavaliers, i.e. the king's soldiery in those parts, plundered him of all, excepting five broad pieces, which he reserv'd, and his two cups, of which also there is this remarkable story and providence. Mr. Chamberlain had by his wife, his master's dofter, two children, with these he and she travell from Barnstaple to Collumpton.

The children were put in a pair of panniers, one in each, and the two cups tied upon the saddle betwixt them. As they were travelling in a fair summer's day, in July 1650, over Blackdown, in the way to Collumpton, about noon the sun is over cast with a very dark and thick cloud, and on the sudden it falls a thundering very grievously and terribly, and a great thunder clap strikes in between the poor children, which done, the dark cloud vanisheth, and the heavens clear up again as bright as before; onely poor Mrs. Chamberlain, all in terror and horror, supposing her children to have bin destroyd by it, cry's out, O! my children! my children! But comeing up to them, she and her husband find them very merry, laughing and playing, without

any hurt. Then they look for their two cups of two pretious stones incast in gold, but they find them gone. The same hand that gave them him ten years before, did now take them away, no one haveing ever bin a jodh the better for the divels guift. There went a report abroad in the country, that the divel took theise cups out of Mr. Chamberlain's hand; but it was not so; but as I have now recorded, and he related unto that worthy lady Madam Fortescue, for whose manors, as I said before, he was the steward, and from whose mouth I had this remarkable providence, he haveing acquainted her with all theise passages and particulars.

ITA TESTOR JOANNES QUICK,
VS D.M. IN CIVITATE LONDINI, 1690.

AN ACCOUNT OF SOME EXTRAORDINARY STRUCTURES ON THE TOPS OF HILLS IN THE HIGHLANDS; WITH REMARKS ON THE PROGRESS OF THE ARTS AMONG THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF SCOTLAND.

BY ALEXANDER FRASER TYLER, ESQ. F. R. S. EDIN.

IN the year 1777 an account was published by Mr. John Williams, of certain remains of ancient buildings on the summits of some hills in the Highlands of Scotland, which to him afforded grounds for a very extraordinary supposition, That they had been cemented together by means of fire. He mentioned several of those hills exhibiting remains of buildings which he had visited and examined; and offered some ingenious conjectures with regard to forming such extraordinary structures, and the purposes for which they had been reared.

This account excited the curiosity of several travellers to visit some of those hills. In the same year Dr. Anderson, of Monkhill, transmitted to the Society of Antiquaries of London, a very elaborate account of some ancient monuments and fortifications in the Highlands of Scotland,

In these he treats of the vitrified forts, and particularly of that upon the hill of Knock-farril in Ross-shire; and agreeing with Mr. Williams in the general idea, that in rearing those structures the builders had employed fire, for the purpose of cementing the materials, he differs from him as to the manner in which he supposes the fire to have been applied.

It is curious to remark, how the same appearances, to different observers, lead to the most opposite conclusions. These two gentlemen seem not to have entertained a doubt, that the vitrified materials on the tops of those hills, were the vestiges of works of art, and the remains of structures reared for the purposes of defence.

The Bishop of Derry, when he visited the hill of Craig-Phadrick, near Inverness, expressed his opinion, that the mounds of vitrified matter

were

were not the remains of any artificial work, but the traces of an ancient volcano; and in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for 1777, is an account of *Craig Phadrick*, there termed a *volcanic hill near Inverness*, in which the writer does not hesitate to pronounce this hill an extinguished volcano; and having sent specimens of the burnt matter, for the inspection of the Royal Society, the Secretary subjoins a note to the paper, intimating, that "these specimens having been examined by some of the Members well acquainted with volcanic productions, were by them judged to be real lava." Such was likewise the opinion of a very ingenious Member of this Society, the late Andrew Crosbie, Esq. who, in an account which he gave to the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh, in 1780, offered some curious conjectures with regard to the process of Nature, by which he supposed the whole of this hill to have been thrown up from the bottom of the sea by the operation of intense fire.

The perusal of those different opinions excited my curiosity, in 1782, to examine such of the hills mentioned by Mr. Williams as lie in that country; and I now propose to speak of the result of that examination, which, however, I confine chiefly to *Craig-Phadrick*.

Craig-Phadrick is a small conical hill, which forms the eastern extremity of that ridge of mountains which bounds *Loch-Nefs* upon the north-west side. It is situate about a mile to the north of *Inverness*, and is accessible on two different quarters. When seen from the opposite heights, it appears of a conical figure, the top cut off, forming a level surface, bounded at each end by a small rising or shoulder. At the distance of three or four miles, its artificial appearance is more perceptible than upon a nearer approach, when the eye, seeing only a part, fails to take in the great outlines, and to perceive their regularity and symmetry.

On approaching *Craig-Phadrick* upon the west side, what first presents itself to view is a road cut through the rock, from the bottom to the summit, in most places about ten feet in breadth, and nearly of the same depth, winding in a serpentine direction for about seventy feet; by which means an ascent is gained over a steep rock, which is otherwise quite inaccessible from that quarter. The form alone of this road leaves little room to doubt of its being an operation of art.

From the nature of the stone itself, of which this hill is formed, and from that compound appearance of water-worn pebbles, sticking in a cementing mass, it has been conjectured, that these pebbles, together with the bed in which they are lodged, had been forced up from the bottom of the sea, by internal fire.

With regard to the nature of the stone of this hill, I shall here observe only, that this compound appearance in the rock at *Craig-Phadrick*, affords no more presumption of this particular hill being forced up by fire from the bottom of the sea, than it does of all the surrounding hills, for many miles, having the same origin. The greatest part of the hills which bound *Loch-Nefs* are composed of the same materials; or, at least, contain large strata of the stone I have mentioned. Yet none of those hills that I have seen, or heard of, exhibit the smallest appearance of the effects of fire; though being infinitely higher than *Craig Phadrick*, and consequently demanding a much greater force to raise them up, had fire been the agent, its effects on them would probably have been much more conspicuous than on a hill incomparably smaller.

That the materials which compose the hill of *Craig-Phadrick*, as well as all other hills of which the stone is of a similar nature, have originally been under water, I have not the smallest doubt. The compound appearance of the rock, which is evidently a mass of water-worn pebbles,

of various size, nature, and colour, sticking in a bed of clay, leaves no room to doubt of its origin. But whether those hills, which consist of such compound materials, have been forcibly raised up from the bottom of the water, by some convulsion of nature, or formed by a gradual *alluvia*, or deposition of materials under a mass of water which has now deserted them, is what we have no grounds for determining with certainty, and few to found even a probable conjecture. Since, with regard to this particular hill, there never has been a section made across any part of it, from which the component strata might be perceived, or the disposition in which they lie. All that I am at present concerned to shew, is, that, from the superficial or external appearance of this hill, there is no reason for supposing that it ever contained intestine fire. The stone, of which the whole of this, and most of the neighbouring hills are composed, is a mixed mass of round water-worn pieces of different coloured granite, greyish or speckled quartz, and the common white quartz. This compound stone, which is well known to miners, has, from its appearance, been termed *plum-pudding* stone. Those who have entertained the notion of Craig-Phadrick's being an extinguished volcano, have maintained that this compound stone is of the nature of the volcanic *tufas*. This, however, will be acknowledged to be a mistake, by all who have examined and compared the two substances. The volcanic *tufas* are all composed of materials which have undergone a change by fire; the *plum-pudding*-stone has undergone no such change. Sir William Hamilton describes *tufa* to be a soft stone, composed of pumice, ashes, and burnt matter, its colour often tinged with grey, green, and yellow. It is formed, says he, by water making up these materials into a sort of clay, which afterwards hardens. The *plum-pudding* stone, on the contrary, contains no burnt materials. Its component parts, so far from being already burnt,

when exposed to fire, undergo a total change, and the whole stone suffers an imperfect vitrification.

Upon the whole surface of this hill, and amidst all the detached fragments, both of the natural stone and of the vitrified matter, there is not, so far as I could observe, any thing that bears the appearance of a pumice stone. The burnt matter, indeed, is often full of small holes or honeycombs; but it still retains a glossy appearance and a considerable weight; both which circumstances sufficiently distinguish it from pumice. *Basalt* are, I believe, constantly found, in some form or another, upon all volcanic hills; but neither on the rock of Craig-Phadrick, nor any of the neighbouring hills, is there, so far as I could observe, the smallest appearance of that kind.

The vitrified matter on the summit of this rock is, therefore, the only circumstance which positively indicates the effect of fire. I shall now proceed to examine the circumstance which, in my apprehension, evinces, in the most satisfactory manner, that those appearances of the effect of fire on the summit of this hill, are not the operation of nature, but of art, is the regular order and disposition of those materials, the form of the ground, and the various traces of skill and contrivance, which are yet plainly discernible, though considerably defaced, either by external violence, or by the obliterating hand of time. To proceed regularly in examining those appearances of artificial contrivance, I return to that winding road I before mentioned, which is evidently cut through the rock for the purpose of gaining an easy ascent from the level ridge to the summit, which would otherwise have been impracticable.

In mounting up by this road, and towards the middle of the ascent, there appears a small platform overhanging the road, upon the right hand, and inclining, by a very gentle declivity, to the edge of the rock. Upon this platform, and on the very

extremity of it, are placed four enormous stones, which have evidently been guided by art into that position; as it is impossible, supposing them to have rolled down, that they ever could have rested in that situation. The posture of these stones leaves no doubt as to the purpose they were intended to serve. Upon an alarm of danger, the strength of a very few men was sufficient to raise these enormous stones so as to destroy their balance, and project them into the hollow road, which they would entirely block up, and thus either prevent all access, or render the pass so difficult, as to be with ease defended by a few against any number of assailants.

On arriving at the summit of the hill by the winding road, and a few feet below the rampart which crowns the top of the hill, there appears an outward wall surrounding the whole, which approaches on the sides of the hill so near to the upper rampart, as to leave only a fossa or trench of ten or twelve feet in width between them, unless at the west extremity, where this outward wall extends itself to a greater distance from the inner rampart, and forms a level platform, of an oblong and somewhat semicircular shape, about forty yards in length, and fifteen at its greatest breadth. This outward wall is in many places so low, as to be almost level with the rock, though, in other places, it rises to the height of two or three feet; but even when it is lowest, the marks of it may be traced by a line of vitrified matter sticking fast to the rock, all along nearly of the same breadth, which, in most places, is about nine feet. The remains of this wall are strongly vitrified, unless in one place upon the north side, where, for about seventy yards, the rampart is formed only of dry stones and earth. The probable reason of this I shall afterwards mention. It is sufficient just now to observe, that the strong natural defence that was afforded on this side, by the extreme steepness of the rock, which is here almost perpen-

dicular, superseded the necessity of much artificial operation, there being little hazard that an assault would ever be attempted on this quarter.

Every where else this outward wall appears completely vitrified; and at the east side, where the hill is more accessible, and the declivity more gradual, there is a prodigious mound of vitrified matter, extending itself to the thickness of above forty feet. At the south-east corner, and adjoining to this immense mound, is an out-work, consisting of two semi-circular vitrified walls, with a narrow pass cut through them in the middle. This appears to have been another, and perhaps the principal entry to the fort.

It was necessary that there should be two entries, one from the level ridge, which joins this hill on the west, to that chain of which it forms the extremity; the other from the low country to the east. The entry to the west was defended in the manner already described; that towards the east did not admit of a defence of the same kind, but was secured by three ramparts; and the pass through the semi-circular out-work was made so narrow as to be easily defended, or even blocked up with stones and earth, upon the shortest notice of danger.

We come now to the inner wall, surrounding the summit of this hill, and inclosing a level space, about seventy-five yards in length, and thirty in breadth, rounded like the outward wall, at each of the ends. This inner wall is nearly of the same thickness with the outward one, and is of considerable height. There is some appearance that it has been armed with four bastions or turrets; but within this inner space, there are other marks of artificial operation, which are less ambiguous. There appears, on the east side, a portion of the internal space, which is separated from the rest by two ranges of stones, strongly fixed in the ground, in the form of a rectangular parallelogram. This separation is immediately discernible by the eye, from this circumstance, that

that the whole of the inclosed summit has been most carefully cleared from stones; of which there is not one to be seen, except those that form this division, and the single stone in the middle of the circle of *tumuli* above-mentioned. What has been the design of this separated space, is difficult to conjecture.

Towards the East end of the large area, on the summit, are the vestiges of a well, about six feet in diameter, which has probably been dug deep into the rock, though it is now filled up with rubbish to within a yard of the surface.

Such are the appearances on the summit of Craig-Phadrick, which exhibit, in my opinion, such evident and unambiguous traces of artificial operation, that I cannot conceive a difference of opinion to have arisen concerning their origin, but from too inattentive and hasty a survey of them, joined to a partiality for those hypotheses, extremely fashionable at present, which ascribe a vast variety of natural appearances to the operation of ancient volcanos.

Of these fortified hills mentioned by Mr. Williams, I had likewise an opportunity of examining two others, the hill of Dun-Evan, in the county of Nairn, and the Castle-hill of Finnhaven, in the county of Angus.

On the summit of the hill of Dun-Evan, (of which the name implies that it had been originally a place of defence) there have been two walls or ramparts surrounding a level space, of the same oblong form with that upon Craig-Phadrick, though not quite so large. There are likewise the traces of a well within the inclosed area; and at the east end, as at Craig-Phadrick, there are the remains of a prodigious mound, or mass of building, much more extensive than that which we have remarked upon the former hill. In all these operations, which in their forms are perfectly similar to those on Craig-Phadrick, there are not, however, so far as I could perceive, any marks of vitrification, or the effects of fire. Mr. Williams, in his description of Dun-Evan, says,

that the vitrified ruins are more walled here than upon Knock-Farril or Craig-Phadrick; but as neither I, nor two other gentlemen who examined this hill along with me, could perceive the smallest appearance of vitrification, I am inclined to believe, that, in this instance, Mr. Williams's fondness for his new discovery has a little blinded him in his observations.—Dun-Evan has, in my apprehension, been fortified with walls of dry stone and earth, but these of great thickness, and very compactly built, as appears by their remains. The entry Mr. Williams supposes to have been at the east end, where there has been, as already observed, a prodigious rampart of stone. But in this particular he is evidently mistaken. The entry has, without doubt, been upon the west side, where there is a serpentine road from the bottom to the summit, extremely conspicuous, which is visibly continued for a considerable distance along the low ground, at the foot of the hill, and is regularly formed, by filling up hollows, and levelling rocky heights, which lay in its way.

The inclosed space on the summit of the Castle-hill of Finnhaven, is of much greater extent than that upon Craig-Phadrick or Dun-Evan. The area is about a hundred and forty yards in length, and above forty in breadth. The vitrified remains of a rampart are extremely visible all around the summit, which is cleared of stones, and levelled, unless at one end, where there is a great hollow space, separated from the rest of the area, and probably destined exclusively for the keeping of cattle. The remains of structure upon this hill are, in other respects, nearly similar to those on Craig-Phadrick and Dun-Evan.

Another fortified hill, which is not among those enumerated by Mr. Williams, I have likewise visited, and have examined with particular attention. This is Dun-Jardel, a very high hill, which rises in a beautiful irregular, conic figure, on the south-side of Lough-Ness, about two miles

to the eastward of the fall of Fyers. The summit is accessible only on the south side by a narrow ridge, communicating with the hills of Stratherrick, of which it terminates a small collateral chain. On every other quarter, the ascent is almost perpendicular; and the base of the hill is defended by a very rapid river, which winds along two thirds of its circumference. The inclosed area on the top of Dun-Jardel is an oblong square of twenty-five yards in length and fifteen in breadth. It is, therefore, considerably smaller than any of the three fortified hills abovementioned; but is, from its situation and

form, incomparably stronger, and must in those periods when it was resorted to for defence, have been quite impregnable. The area on the summit is levelled, cleared of stones, and has in it the remains of a well. It is surrounded with a very strong wall of dry stones, which has formerly been of great height and thickness, as may be conjectured from the prodigious quantity of stones that has fallen only upon the level ridge on the south side. Those parts of the building on the other side which have gone to decay, must have rolled down the precipice into the river at the bottom.

{*To be continued.*}

ON THE CHARACTER OF THE ENGLISH.

BY MR. WENDEBORN.

[*Continued, from Page 110.*]

A Generous disposition is said to be one of the traits of the English national character; and, I think, very justly. It is likewise true, that they are much inclined to make known their acts of generosity, and to preserve the memory of their good deeds. But supposing this to arise from vanity, or from other causes, it has, nevertheless, its advantages. The exertions of humanity and compassion are, among the English, frequently sudden, and very strong. Great indulgence is shown to faults and human infelicities, because hypocrisy and arrogant assumption are not so common here, and every body seems to know and to feel what man is. Yet there are despicable characters enough, who laugh at the dictates of humanity, and seem to be destitute of liberal and generous sentiments; but the majority of the nation are against them, and treat with contempt and detestation, those who appear to be devoid of the feelings of humanity and generosity. The conduct of the English in India, and the poor inhabitants of that country, oppressed, plundered, and even sacrificed to

avarice, will never add to their fame for liberal and humane dispositions; but rather remain as an indelible stain.

A modern German writer praises the English highly on account of their humane treatment of the brute creation; but, I am apprehensive, that whoever has been somewhat more acquainted with England, and particularly London, will consider first, before he concurs with him. A few examples are not sufficient to characterize a whole nation. Whoever has seen the driving of cattle to the London markets, the usage of the poor horses in carts, before post-chaises, and hackney-coaches, the riding them at horse-races, and on the public roads; whoever has been a spectator at cock fightings, bull-baitings, and similar exhibitions, will certainly hesitate a long while, before he pronounces encomiums on English generosity towards poor animals.

The liberality of the nation is praised, and very justly. There are instances of the kind, which, on account of their magnitude, and the manner in which they were done, deserve admiration.

miration. Subscriptions towards the support of the poor and the necessitous, are no where more common, nor more liberal than in England. Hospitals of every kind, institutions to alleviate human miseries, charity-schools, dispensaries, and such monuments as witness the noblest feelings of humanity, are no where more frequent than here.

I am, likewise, of opinion, that, when popery was the religion of the kingdom, the incomes of the monasteries, and other charitable institutions, did not equal, even in those superstitious times, the sums which now, by acts of parliament, or by generous and voluntary contributions, are annually raised for charitable uses: they amount to several millions. Nevertheless, in no country are more poor to be seen than in England, and in no city a greater number of beggars than in London. The fault seems manifestly to be in the disposal of the money collected for the poor, and the regulations made for the maintenance of them.

Those acts of the British government, which foreigners look upon as monuments of the generosity and liberality of the nation, are to be judged of with caution. The money granted by a majority of the house of commons, from whatever motives or influence, always comes out of the pockets of the people; and if it once happens, that ten thousand pounds are granted to purposes which do honour to the nation, a hundred thousand are, perhaps, voted immediately after, which cannot be placed either to the account of national reputation, or to that of the good of the public.

I have before observed, that the two hospitals at Greenwich and at Chelsea, are generally the first and principal objects, which strike a foreigner with high notions of a liberal and generous way of thinking. They, indeed, raise the attention on account of their grandeur; but I have already made some remarks on this outward appearance, which is common to almost all English charitable institu-

tions, and which rather prevents their being so extensively useful as they might be. It may be observed, that the British armies, in war-time, together with their auxiliaries, amount sometimes to almost a hundred thousand men, and the navy, perhaps, requires almost as many; and it should also be remembered, that the hospitals at Greenwich contains only about two thousand invalids, and that of Chelsea, perhaps, six hundred. This certainly will lessen the admiration of these two structures, generally regarded as the most magnificent monuments ever erected by a generous national spirit.

Notwithstanding these provisions are made, a stranger will be surprised to see many poor crippled sailors, in the streets of London, who go about begging, or sing ballads to excite compassion. These people, however, when they are not impostors, but real sailors, have not served in king's ships, but chiefly on board privateers; and, therefore, cannot, by right, claim the benefit of the national hospitals for invalids. Yet as the letters of marque are made out, and given under the authority of government, it might be asked, why those who fit out privateers, to enrich themselves by robbing, are not obliged by government, or by act of parliament, to pay so much out of their plunder, as might be required to erect and support hospitals for those who are maimed and disabled in their service? The sight, and the miserable situation of these poor people in the street, during or soon after a war, certainly does not increase the high notions which foreigners generally entertain of British generosity and liberality, when they first arrive in England.

Sincerity and honesty are reckoned to be another trait in the English character; and I can confirm the truth of it from my own experience. Very few assertions are so general as not to be liable to many exceptions; and therefore, numbers of impostors, and bad people are to be found in England as well as in other countries; but it

is, nevertheless certain, that the bulk of the nation is good and honest, and not given to deceit. I may say, that of this the very spirit of the British constitution and laws is a proof. The riches and dignities which a person may be possessed of, will avail but very little in a court of justice, even if the plaintiff were a poor man; on the contrary, a good private character of a person accused, will be of great service, if the case is in the least doubtful. No people, I believe, shew, as it seems from a natural disposition, more lenity and indulgence to those who are guilty of human failings, or have committed transgressions, than the English. There is none that treats the unfortunate with more compassion, and regulates its conduct towards them more according to the saying of Seneca, that the unfortunate are sacred objects.* There are some reigns, recorded in English history, wherein deeds of despotism, and transactions against the constitution and the laws, seem to darken this trait of the national character; but it is evident, that the bulk of the nation has always detested such a way of acting, and has, if possible, inflicted such punishments on the miscreants as they deserved. It would, therefore, be wrong to judge by the conduct of particular persons; or from the wicked disposition and the ambitious views of bad ministers, at the head of the administration, or from modern transactions in the East Indies, of the majority of the people.

Frankness and freedom are likewise a characteristic of English manners. In many countries even thoughts are not free; and a person suspected of heresy, either in matters of state or religion, cannot always avoid prosecution. In England, thank Heaven! not only thoughts, but even the tongue, the pen, and the press, are free. An Englishman has no reason to be an hypocrite; he may speak as he thinks, and act as it appears to him to be just and proper. Since neither

education, nor laws and constitution, form him for a slave; he exhibits himself as a free man, partly from habit, and partly because he has no reason to be afraid, so long as he conforms to the laws of his country. The number of newspapers, which are printed daily, and the freedom which is so predominant in them, shew the character of the nation, in this respect in a striking light. I will, by no means, be a defender of the abuse of the freedom of the press; I disapprove of its being made a vehicle of calumny, or of productions calculated to mislead and to pervert good principles; but after many years observation, I am confident, that the advantage of the liberty of the press greatly out-weighs the abuses to which it is sometimes liable. The whole public is here made the tribunal, at whose bar judgment is given; every man is heard, and everyone is free, to justify his conduct, or clear his character. If in all countries such heralds were to be found, whose loud and dread voice could awaken shame and fear; were the common people every where as eager to read public papers, conducted in the manner as in England, tyranny and insolence, superstition and oppression, would soon be banished by a majority of voices; and people who could read, and had learned to express their thoughts in writing, would soon cease to be slaves. With how much frankness does a patriot speak in parliament, or publish his sentiments on national affairs, as a sensible spectator, by means of the press.

Courage marks the English character, and though they have this in common with other nations, yet I think that they maintain a kind of superiority in being the least fearful of death. Battles fought by the English, by sea and land, afford sufficient proof of this assertion; and, perhaps, they would be more numerous, if naval and military promotions were not bought, or obtained by interest, but

* *Res sacra militer est.*

bestowed according to merit. Among those who suffer for capital crimes, many examples of contempt of death are to be met with. The old and the infirm, when they see dissolution almost before their eyes, will talk of it with the greatest composure, as if they possessed a soul like that described by Juvenal, which, far from being terrified by death, reckons the moment of its dissolution among the gifts of Heaven.

I will here insert a few words on suicide, which is so common in this country. Whether it may be considered as a proof of courage, I will not now discuss. In my opinion self-murder is always an act highly unnatural, and men who do not live in a state of civil society, will never be guilty of it. Various causes have been assigned, to account for this propensity of the English to suicide. Sometimes the blame is laid upon the climate, sometimes upon the melancholy disposition peculiar to them, and sometimes upon their eating too much animal food, besides an hundred other reasons. But I believe it to be a natural consequence of that education which prevails in this country, and of which I have said so much before. The passions are in youth little controuled, much less subdued; and when, in years of more maturity, they cannot be gratified in their vehemence, they will sometimes produce that fatal resolution to finish a disagreeable life, by violent means; which in a hundred instances, is more easily taken, because religion, that support of the unhappy in adversity, is too often totally neglected. The Quakers in England, are a plain proof of the truth of the opinion here advanced; for they have the same climate and diet as the rest of the English, and yet suicide is unheard of amongst them, or at least extremely seldom. The reason of this must undoubtedly be looked for in the difference of the education which the Quakers receive,

when compared with that of the rest of the English. The passions and obstinacy of the children of the former are broken very early, though not by violent means; for a Quaker denies, with a firm composure, satisfying the impetuous desires of his children; and gains, by these means, infinitely over them.

During my stay in England, many persons of quality, and numbers of lower extraction, both rich and poor, have made away with themselves; and their history, particularly that part of their leaving this world, would confirm all that I have said on this subject.

It is said of the inhabitants of England, that they are much addicted to melancholy and gloominess, and I believe there is some truth in this. They seem, however, to be friends to pleasure, though every one creates his own, according to his fancy and his whims. They have a proverb, "A short life and a merry one;" which many, to their detriment, put into practice. No people on earth have, upon the whole, more reason to be satisfied with their lot than the English; but *fortunatus si sua bona norint!* thousands of them do not know it, or are not inclined to believe it. Many ramble over the whole globe in pursuit of happiness and ease of mind; but they are soon convinced, when they are remote from their own island, that they had better have staid at home, to enjoy there what they in vain sought for in foreign countries. I have seen, however, many English, who are really happy, and seem to be conscious of it; but their number, I presume, is not very great. Most of the inhabitants of this island might be contented mortals, if they were not too extravagant in their desires, and too indulgent in gratifying their passions, which too often have acquired a compleat ascendancy over reason.

(To be continued.)

JOURNEY

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JOURNEY FROM NEW ORLEANS TO MEXICO, PART OF A TOUR
ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH
NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT
OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

[Continued from Page 119.]

DURING my residence at this post, the savages we had seen at Saint Pedro quarrelled with the new governor, who wanted to prevent their trading with the French at Natchitoches, and made an attempt to carry off a troop of four hundred horses. The garrison took arms, mounted their horses, and pursued them by their footsteps for a hundred leagues, without being able to come up with them. They were returning quietly to Saint Antonio, when at the passage of the Guadalupe river, another party of the same savages, hidden among the bushes, attacked them with a smart fire. The garrison made a brave resistance for three hours, but were obliged to give way to numbers, and lost about 150 horses, and much baggage. The post being insulted some days after, they applied themselves to fortify it better. I offered my service, and we prepared to make a good defence; but the whole ended in a slight skirmish. The manner in which these savages fight did not give me a disadvantageous idea of them. I remarked that when they attempted to attack us at the river of *Quinto Calcones*, they took the opportunity to appear, when we were embarrassed, and separated from each other by the rivulet, which was not fordable. They had certainly succeeded in their attempt, had they been a little more hardy, or more numerous. I afterwards remarked, that when they attacked the Spaniards at the Guadalupe river, they also waited until they were divided, it being the custom of the Spaniards to pass the rivers, one half with the governor, and one half with the horses for relief. When the governor, with his troop, presented themselves to pass the river, the savages lay in ambush near the road; some who were on foot, made their first discharge at a great distance, and then running into the plain, retired behind their horsemen, who had appeared from another hiding place, on a given signal, to reload, and who advanced towards the Spaniards, to give their discharge also. Thus the battle continued, the footmen advanced some paces to fire, and the horsemen, who fired also in their turn, covered them until they had loaded again. The inferiority of numbers, and a desire to help their companions, induced the Spaniards to withdraw the detachment which guarded the horses; the savages took advantage of this circumstance, threw themselves between the horses and the Spaniards, and made themselves masters of them. I equally admired the precautions they used to escape being taken prisoners. They divest themselves of all cloathing, to avoid being stopped in their flight; and rub their bodies with oil, to prevent their enemies laying fast hold of them; this was a custom of the ancient Athletes; but I do not conceive they are very obstinate warriors, and I think that in the end they will give way to European perseverance. I was, however, happy, they did not take it in their heads to lay siege to us, for we could not have resisted a long attack.

The post of Saint Antonio is on a plain, one side of it occupies a strait, or narrow slip of land, formed by a small river; the town is a long square, divided by a small branch of the river. It is encircled by walls of stone, belonging to the houses, and the entrances are guarded by stakes, in the form of palisades. As it is very extensive, and some of the houses are in ruins, it is not well secured, and would

would require a great number of people to defend it; the vicinity is also embarrassed by huts, which would greatly favour the approach of an enemy. The winding of the river is furnished with many huts, inhabited by settlers, who are natives of the Canary Islands. The town is, however, very agreeably situated, forming a peninsula, with an easy ascent, commanding the other side of the river. This place is full of prodigious quantities of cranes. The number of houses may be about two hundred, two-thirds of which are built of stone. These are all covered with terraces of earth, which are a sufficient protection, on account of the fine weather, and the little rain that falls in this country. Since my departure from New Orleans, I had not experienced twenty days in which it rained. They, however, informed me, that the Red River, Nachitoches and Adaes, were more subject to rain, colder, and more unhealthy. The marshes and woods in their neighbourhood may be the cause of this. This rain does not fall at Saint Antonio, which is situated among meadows, and is surrounded only by little woods. The large woods end near the Red or Colorado river; there are, however, some few clusters of trees on the bank of the Guadalupe.

This post is the most considerable of the four in the province, which are the Adaes, seven leagues from Nachitoches; the Acoquiffas, one hundred leagues south-west of that; Labadie du Spiritu Santo, two hundred leagues west-south-west, and lastly, this post of Saint Antonio, two hundred and fifty leagues from Adaes. We also find a post called San Saba, west-north-west of Saint Antonio; and at the distance of one hundred leagues west of Saint Antonio, is the post of Rio-Grande, situated on the shore of that river. Nearly in the same quarter of the compass is the *North-Passage* to New Mexico or Santa Fé, which is about two hundred and fifty leagues from Saint Antonio. By this we see there is a considerable

error in the charts, which lay down Mexico much farther to the north than it really is; and although the windings of the road may greatly deceive us, with respect to the exact distance, I think, however, that the latitude of those places which belong to the Spaniards, do not extend beyond 33 or 34 degrees north. The government of Cuvilla, which is to the west, is at least fifty leagues further to the south, and that of Sonora, which joins to California, lies S. W. of the latter. The Spaniards formerly possessed some posts much farther to the north, but having been much harassed by the savages, they have been obliged to abandon them. It is with the utmost difficulty they support themselves at San Saba, Santa Fé, and the *North-Passage*; they have even issued orders to abandon San Saba. The route to the new mines of Sierra Prieto, by way of Nuevo Sonora, is almost impracticable, and I saw some very considerable preparations made to drive the savages from it. How can we reconcile these facts with our charts, which lay down a great many posts north of these? The accounts I have received from the native Indians, inhabitants of those parts the farthest north from this kingdom, do not suffer me to believe the existence of those establishments. These are not light conjectures. I have conversed with those who have carried up the cloathing for the Spaniards stationed to the northward, and with some persons at Adaes, who had been employed to draw plans of the posts situated among the savages, and who came from Nueva Sonora.

Except the post of Saint Antonio, which has a colony of Spaniards from the Canary islands, the other posts are composed only of soldiers and a few Indians, who were formerly savage. Their employment is to raise horses, mules, black cattle, and sheep. They permit these animals to wander in troops about the fields, and every two months drive some of them into parks situated near their houses,

houses, there they tie them up; and they endeavour to tame them from their wildness. Two or three days after, when they have conquered them by hunger, they untie them, and bring in others. Thus, if they are careful not to permit their cattle to become too savage, they sometimes will possess five or six thousand head.

This is the method they make use of to catch and tie them up: As they are excellent horsemen, they range the fields and woods to hunt the animal they want to take; when they are near him, they hold a long rope, coiled up, over their arms, this they throw over the beast, and catch him either by the neck or feet, and instantly stopping their horses, thus secure the animal. They keep also some of them domesticated, which supply them with milk, and which they take with them on their journey. The half-wild oxen serve to supply them with tallow and dried meat. The horses and mules are commonly sold when they are about half broke. These kind of animals are not very dear; I have seen one of them sold for a pair of shoes. The domesticated animals are all permitted to range the woods day and night, and they have not above two persons appointed to attend and watch all the cattle belonging to a post. When any of these animals stray, the keepers know by the traces of their feet, whether they are wandered in feeding, or have been driven away, and also whether it is a mule or a horse; by these marks they will pursue them fifteen or twenty leagues. This quickness of sight, which they attain from practice, enables them also to pursue the savages in the woods. Both they and the Spaniards, when they mean to hide their march, set fire to the grafts; thus we often find two or three spots together which have been burned.

To avoid losing themselves, they have in the meadows some distinguishing mark to guide them to the neighbouring woods; and in the woods, they know the north by that side of the tree, which not being exposed to

the sun, is become green, and furnished with a kind of moss; the other side of the tree, towards the sun, is whitish and dry.

There are four missions in the neighbourhood of this post, each consisting of two Franciscans, situated on the banks of the river, about two or three leagues from each other. These missionaries bring up the families of savages taken in war, which they have baptised and married. Every mission has seven or eight of them, with their wives and children; they support and make them work for their profit.—The regulations of these missions are nearly the same as the Jesuits observe in their establishments at Paraguay, where the Indians are, however, better treated than they are here.

The Tegas Indians are the last who use musquets, and trade with the French. The others, who inhabit about fifty leagues north of Saint Antonio, and who call themselves Apaches, make use of arrows, as those do who inhabit near the borders of the sea, between the posts of Acoquillas and Labadie de *Spirito Santo*. Some Europeans have thought the latter, who are called Coumaches, Anthropophagi. The Spaniards describe them as poltroons, and cruel, and they only avoid slavery by flying into the small islands and marshes on the borders of the sea.

The Spaniards make war against the Indians, who use only arrows, with great safety, by covering their heads with a helmet, and their bodies with a coat made of deer-skins, stuffed with cotton, which is proof against the arrows.

When the number of Indians is small, and the Spanish horsemen are sure of victory, they never fire but when obliged; but they catch them with ropes as they do horses, hunting them, and throwing the rope round their neck or feet, in such a manner as to throw them down, in which situation they cannot make any resistance.—They afterwards bind, and carry them to the missions, where by kindness, hunger, giving them women as wives,

wives, or by reason, they endeavour to reconcile them to their state. The prejudices which prevent the Spaniards from an intercourse with the independent savages, and their constantly injuring them, or carrying on clandestine hostilities, has, in length of time, acquired them an immense and depopulated territory to the north of New Spain. It is doubtful if any other system of policy, or even an open war, would have had the same effect.

I lodged at the house of a good Indian, whose gentleness and disinterested patience towards me in the journey from Adaes, had greatly attached me to him. I had, besides, made many other acquaintances, and my plain manner seemed in general to please them. I believe these people thought I intended to settle among them, and they often pressed me to do so. Many of them conceived I had a great deal of money, as they saw I had many clothes, which, although not very considerable in our country, would have been a fortune to one of them. They also observed my regular conduct, and I believe would not have been sorry if I had been caught by the charms of one of their daughters. There were some of them both in person and character really deserving, and I might easily have succeeded, as I eat and lodged in the same room with them. I felt the value of those gentle and uncorrupt manners, which liberty, honest poverty, and a pious education gave these worthy people. I found all these virtues in the family of my host, but however I might be struck with their manners, the beauty of the climate, and the fertility of the soil, I was very far from entering into their idea.

I had already bought a horse and three mules, and prepared provisions necessary for my subsistence, being not willing again to run the risk of suffering hunger. I had found this want so pressing and troublesome, that I am not ashamed to confess it absorbed every other thought, and had made me forget even the principles of my edu-

tion. I paid all my expences with my linen, which was very good, and a more convenient exchange in this country than money, which is not very current; besides, I was not sorry to part with it, as it saved me the trouble of carrying it. A Creole, and native of Sartilla, eased me of some of my trouble, by robbing me of a dozen shirts, and some other things, a part of the value of which I recovered, as an inhabitant, a friend of the thief, gave me a draft for twenty piastras on Mexico, to indemnify me. I mention the place of this Creole's birth, because in the little disagreeable circumstances I have met with, I have observed that vices increased in proportion to the elevation of rank or extraction; that purity of manners diminished progressively from the inhabitants of the woods to those of the villages and of the cities, so that of the Savages, the Indians, the Creole, and the Spaniard, the latter will be found the least sociable. I have never received any considerable injury from the savage, or the Indian half savage; and at the settlements I would rather lodge with an Indian than a Spaniard. This confirmed me in the opinion I had formed, and afforded me a satisfaction in searching into the customs of the uncultivated people I met with on my journey.

Route by the Rheda, and criss the Rio Bravo, from Saint Antonio to the city of Sartilla, and my residence there.

WE set forward for Sartilla on the second day after Christmas day. We had not travelled five leagues before we were cautioned to be aware of the savages, who were in pursuit of a monk; we halted at his mission, for fear of being attacked on our route, for as we had no escort, we could not make any long resistance. On the next day, having reconnoitred and found the passage free, we set forward, avoiding the beaten path, for fear of some disagreeable encounter.

We

We passed through some woods, and then over some hills, from which many springs of water issued, and rendered the ground very difficult to pass. These springs led us down to a little river, which was fordable, but also difficult to pass, on account of rocks, holes, and a strong current. Some meadows and brooks led us to the *Rio Tío*, which we forded.

We afterwards found some lakes and marshes, abounding with birds and fish; and soon after fell in with the *Rio de las Nubes*, which was almost dry, but very muddy. We were obliged

to make fascines to pass it, which was attended with much trouble. We afterwards crossed some fine meadows, which led us into a very extensive valley, and arrived at last, after ten days journey, at a village, consisting of ten or twelve houses, named *de Rbeda*. It is eighty leagues distant from Saint Antonio, on the bank of a river, called *Rio Grande*, but in the charts *Rio Bravo*; it is the largest river in these parts, next to the Mississippi, and resembles that river in its rapidity.

(*To be continued.*)

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE IN ENGLAND, WITH OCCASIONAL REVIEWS OF SOME OF THE MOST CELEBRATED WORKS.

No. III.

THE next century (the twelfth) was far more propitious to the cause of literature. Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, began his reign in the first year thereof. Although we have no reason to believe him an author, yet from his surname we may conclude him to have been acquainted with letters. History, and even philosophy, had now made some progress, and our English poetry may be said to begin. Richard I. was himself a provincial poet, and a number of French minstrels, called Troubadours, visited England. Seneca's epistles and tragedies, Terence, Martial, Claudian, and Boethius, were all translated into English by Henry, monk of Hyde-abbey, and Benedict, abbot of Peterborough.

Among the historians who flourished in this century were, Eadmeus, the friend of Anselm. He wrote an history of the affairs of England during his own time, from 1061 to 1122, in which he has inserted many original papers, and preserved several important facts, not to be found elsewhere. This work has been highly commended both by ancient and modern writers, for its authenticity and purity of style.

Alredus, or Alured, of Beverley, wrote annals of that monastery, which

were published by Mr. Hearne in 1716. They contain an abridgement of our history from Brutus to Henry I. written in good Latin.

Turgot, who penned the history of the Church of Durham and Northumberland, from 635 to 1096, in four books. This work was afterwards published by Simeon of Durham as his own.

William of Malmesbury was an historian of considerable merit. His principal work was *De regibus Anglorum*, which contains a judicious collection of whatever was on record relative to England, from the invasion of the Saxons, to his own time. Our author was a monk, and library-keeper in the monastery of Malmesbury. His other works are, 2. *Novelle Historiae*. 3. *De Gestis Pontificum Anglorum*. 4. *De Antiquitate Glazeburgensis Monasterii*. And 5. *Vita St. Adelmi*.

Ailred, abbot of Revelsby, wrote many works, the chief of which are, 1. *De Bello Standardi tempore Stephani regis*. 2. *Genealogia regum Anglorum*. 3. *Historia de Vita et Miraculis St. Edwardi regis et Confessoris*; and another life of Edward the Confessor in verse.

Geoffrey of Monmouth wrote a fabulous history of Britain, from the D d Trojan

Trojan Brutus to the reign of Cadwallader, A. D. 690.—Or, we should rather say, he translated it from a MS., written in the British language, and brought to England from Armorica by his friend Gualter, archdeacon of Oxford. But the achievements of King Arthur, Merlin's Prophecies, many speeches and letters, were his own additions. In excuse for this historian, Mr. Wharton judiciously observes, that fabulous histories were then the fashion; and our Milton has made great use of it in his history of England.

Gerald Barry, commonly called *Giraldus Cambrensis*, an historian and ecclesiastic, who flourished in the reigns of Henry II. and Richard I. He wrote 1. *Topographia Hiberniae*. 2. *Histoia Vaticinalis de expugnatione Hibernie*. 3. *Itinerarium Cambriae*, and some other works; he was undoubtedly a man of learning and abilities, but extremely credulous.

Thus far the historians. Among the divines we find Gilbert Crispin, abbot of Westminster, who has left us near twenty theological works; and Baldwin, Archbishop of Canterbury, who wrote several tracts on religious subjects. In law or physic not any of our countrymen seem yet to have distinguished themselves by their writings.

Among the poets of this age we find Richard I. King of England, whom the French have done the honour to number among their provincial bards, called *Traubadours*. There remains now no other specimen of his poetical abilities but two sonnets, one written during his captivity, and the other after his return to England.

As a philosopher, John of Salisbury distinguished himself. He was one of the first restorers of the Greek and Latin languages in Europe, a great scholar, a philosopher, a learned divine, and an elegant Latin poet. His works are, *Policraticon*. *Vita Anselmo*. *Vita Thome Becketi*. *Penten-tiale*. *Epistola*, &c.

We now come to the writers of the thirteenth century, that is, during the

reigns of John, Henry II. and Edward I. a century which produced some men truly great in literature.

In this century, among other historians of merit, flourished Matthew Paris, a man of extraordinary knowledge for the age in which he lived, and an historian of strict integrity. He published, among other works, *Historia ab Adamo ad conquestum Anglie*, lib. 1. which is in MS. in C. C. Cambridge. Most of this book is transcribed by Matthew of Westminster, in the first part of his *Florilegium et Historia major seu Rerum Anglicarum Historia a Gul. Conquerore ad Annun. Henri III.* which has passed through several editions.

Of divines, Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, in 1184, wrote various tracts on religious subjects. John Peckham, likewise archbishop of Canterbury, wrote, (1.) *Collectanea Bibliorum*, and (2.) *Perspectiva Commissis*.

Bracton, who was chief justice of England for twenty years, flourished as a lawyer, and composed a book *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Anglia*, which is in esteem to this day. Haswell, a monk of St. Albans, and Joseph Tuanus, or Joseph of Exeter, shone as Latin poets.

Of philosophers in this century, England has more to boast. Holywood, who was cotemporary, wrote a work, intituled, *De Sphæro Mundi*, and Roger Bacon shone with a degree of lustre, so as to astonish the bulk of mankind in this ignorant age. This truly great man was born in Somersetshire, and educated, first at Oxford, and afterwards at Paris, and was esteemed the glory of that university. On his return from France, he pursued his philosophical studies. By his extraordinary talents, and astonishing progress in sciences which were unknown to the generality of mankind, he excited much envy and malice, and the vulgar were induced to believe he had connections with the devil. On this ridiculous charge he was restrained from reading lectures, and imprisoned in his cell, where

he was confined ten years. His works are 1. *Epistola fratris Rogeris Baconis de secretis operibus artis et nature et de nullets magicae.* 2. *Opus Magnum, and 3. Thebaurus Chemicus.*

Having thus taken a view of the historians and other writers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it may not be unacceptable to take a general view of the progress of knowledge in this kingdom. The civil law was much studied, but it does not appear that there were any great proficients in it. The canon law produced many proficients, and the municipal laws of England began under the English Justinian, Edward I. to take a form. Of this Judge Bracton's treatise, called *Brito*, and the *Fleta*, are remaining proofs.

Towards the close of this century, many people applied to the study of philosophy, physic, and geometry.—

These were revived by an acquaintance with the works of the Arabanes. From them the present numerical figures were learned. In consequence of this introduction of the learning of the Saracens, we find many persons apply themselves to various parts of natural knowledge. Huntingdon wrote on herbs, spices, and gems. Morgan on birds and animals. Ferenten on botany. Alured English, John Giles, and Richard English, wrote on physic. In philosophy several distinguished themselves. Most of these performances were in Latin. The Crusades introduced poetry; persons of warm genius striving to transmit the exploits performed in them to posterity.

Several of the learned cultivated polite literature, but most of the clergy confined themselves to the study of divinity.

ESSAY ON THE ANCIENT NAVIGATION OF THE VENETIANS.

[Continued from Page 39.]

THIS science was most certainly well known, for in all the atlases where the harbours, &c. were hid down, there were for the most part introductory discourses, in which problems in navigation were explained and resolved, according to the then established theory. The ground of such theory was not perfectly understood, except by the captains who had made study a part of their profession. The common mariners knew only the practical parts; for the use and direction of these, the science of navigation was reduced to certain simple given principles, with the application of which, every one, however small his capacity, was acquainted. If he understood only multiplication and division, he could with ease resolve every nautical problem.

This skill consisted in a series of a few trigonometrical numbers, which marked the Sines, the Cosines, and the Tangents of the Angles, formed by the eight rhombs, or quarters of

the wind by which to sail; and these numbers being placed in a table, within various columns and spaces, were disposed in the antique charts, as may be seen in the table annexed. For the most part there was a short explanation of its use added thereto, which they had recourse to, without further diving into the principles. And this was what our forefathers termed *la Raxon del Martelojo*, or in other words, the rule for calculating by memory, or keeping the reckoning at sea.

This word Martelojo, at first sight, seems to derive its origin from the Greek; but as I possess but very little of that language, I did not choose to puzzle myself about it. I therefore addressed myself to the Abbé Morelli, whose thoughts on the subject I shall communicate in his own words, as follows:

"The Venetian word *Martelojo*, made use of in the nautical chart of Andrew Bianchi, or *Martolojo*, as in

the supplement illustrated by the professor Toaldo, derives its origin from the Greek; from whence many Venetian words are well known to be derived; its origin is also known from its termination. I imagine that it comes (though corruptly) from the Greek word *εὐαγγελογίας*, Homartolongium, which signifies a treatise or discourse, which accompanies, &c. from the verb *εὐαγγέλισθαι*, which is used also in the sense of accompanying by Homer, Iliad X. v. 38, and by Hesiod, Oper. and Dies. Lib. I. and besides from the word *λόγος*, which clearly signifies treatise, discourse, &c. Considering it as a writing or composition, serving as a guide in navigation, and shewing how to calculate by dint of memory or figures, I see no other signification which can be attached to the word."

That this is a mixed word, composed of Venetian and Greek, according to the idea of the great Toaldo, does not appear to me consistent with reason, because this strange compound is unparalleled in the Venetian language. On another hand, the text of the rule itself plainly shews that the word *Martelojo* expressly means a discourse from memory, and let any one judge of the text by the explanation which is given by Bianchi himself.

"The knowledge of navigation consists in calculating by Martelojo, as appears from this circle and square, and by the table, by which may be understood some few things, such as the tablets of memory, and the knowing how to go to any part of the

world without either line or compass. But whoever would wish to be able to make this calculation, should well understand both multiplication and division. Marine knowledge is to know how to navigate, and if it is required to know the result by the rule of Martelojo, and how much way a ship makes by one point of wind, and how much she goes to leeward by one point, by two, by three, by four. And if any one was to ask, you may by these sums make all the calculations in navigation. Notwithstanding which we cannot be certain that the calculation is just, but we can come pretty near the truth. I will also ask you, how a ship would be situated, which was going to the westward, but by a contrary wind cannot go a direct course, and goes about a point towards the south-west one hundred miles, falls twenty miles wide of the west; and makes ninety-eight miles; and by two points goes thirty-eight miles wide, and makes ninety-two; by three points goes wide fifty-five miles, and makes eighty-three miles; by four points goes wide seventy-one miles, and makes seventy-one miles; by five points goes wide eighty-three miles, and makes fifty-five miles; by six points goes wide ninety-two miles, and makes thirty-eight miles; by seven points goes wide ninety-eight miles, and makes twenty miles; by eight points goes wide one hundred miles, and makes no miles, and in like manner is the return, the which is marked down in the table of *Martelojo* as appears in the spaces between the lines.

N. B. Quarta is a point of the compass,
Allargar . Avancar Avancar de Ritorno,

pr. una Quarta.	20.	98.	pr. 1 Quarta.	51.	50.
pr. do Quarte.	38.	92.	pr. 2 Quarte.	26.	24.
pr. tre Quarte.	55.	83.	pr. 3 Quarte.	18.	15.
pr. quattro Q.	71.	71.	pr. 4 Quarte.	14.	10.
pr. cinque Q.	83.	55.	pr. 5 Quarte.	12.	6.
pr. sic Quarte.	92.	38.	pr. 6 Quarte.	11.	4.
pr. sete Quarte,	98.	20.	pr. 7 Quarte.	10 $\frac{1}{2}$.	1 $\frac{1}{2}$.
pr. otto Quarte.	100.	000.	pr. 8 Quarte.	0	

The same instructions for calculating is again repeated underneath, in the chart of Bianchi, only contracted into the form of a table, whereby the numbers appear more clear, and at one glance of the eye, as is here underneath expressed.

Suma de Martelojo pr. intenders avancar de Martelojo—

Pr. una Q. de vento.

Allago miglia	20. e avanco 98. p. 1. q.	Sic. 51.	avanco 50
P. 2 Quarte	38. e avanco 92. p. 2. q.	Sic. 26.	avanco 24
P. 3 Quarte	55. e avanco 83. p. 3. q.	Sic. 18.	avanco 15
P. 4 Quarte	71. e avanco 71. p. 4. q.	Sic. 14.	avanco 10
P. 5 Quarte	83. e avanco 55. p. 5. q.	Sic. 12.	avanco 6½
P. 6 Quarte	92. e avanco 38. p. 6. q.	Sic. 11.	avanco 4
P. 7 Quarte	98. e avanco 20. p. 7. q.	Sic. 10½	avanco 1½
P. 8 Quarte	100. e avanco 00. p. 8. q.	Sic. 10	avanco 00

Note. Instead of saying the point of the compass on which a ship steers, the Italians always call it rhomba di vento, and the French the rhom de vent. The French likewise call a point of the compass un quart. As we say N. W. by N. the French and Italians say N. W. un quart N.

(To be continued.)

C U S T O M S O F T H E K A M T S C H A D A L E S.

FROM LESSEPS'S TRAVELS.

THEIR cloathing consists of an outer garment, which is called *parque*, is like a waggoner's frock, and is made of the skins of deer, or other animals, tanned on one side. They wear under this long breeches of similar leather, and next the skin a very short and tight shirt, either of nankeen or cotton stuff; the women's are of silk, which is a luxury among them. Both sexes wear boots in summer, of goats or dogs skins tanned; and in winter, of the skins of sea-wolves, or the legs of rein deer. The men constantly wear caps; in the mild season they put on longer skirts of nankeen, or of skin without hair; they are made like the *parque*, and answer the same purpose, that is, to be worn over their other garments. Their gala dres, is a *parque* trimmed with otter skins and velvet, or other stuffs and furs equally dear. The women are cloathed like the Russian women, whose mode of dres is too well known to need a description; I shall therefore only observe, that the excessive scarcity of every species of stuff at Kamtschatka, renders the toilet of the women an object of very considerable ex-

pence: they sometimes adopt the dres of the men.

The principal food of these people consists, as I have already observed, in dried fish. The fish are procured by the men, while the women are employed in domestic occupations, or in gathering fruits and other vegetables, which, next to dried fish, are the favourite provisions of the Kamtschades and Russians of this country. When the women go out to make these harvests for winter consumption, it is high holiday with them, and the anniversary is celebrated by a riotous and intemperate joy, that frequently gives rise to the most extravagant and indecent scenes. They disperse in crouds through the country, singing and giving themselves up to all the absurdities which their imagination suggests; no consideration of fear or modesty restrains them. I cannot better describe their licentious frenzy than by comparing it with the Bacchanals of the Pagans. Ill betide the man whom chance conducts and delivers into their hands! however resolute or however active he may be, it is impossible to evade the fate that awaits him; and it is seldom that

that he escapes without receiving a severe flagellation.

Their provisions are prepared nearly in the following manner; it will appear, from the recital, that they cannot be accused of much delicacy. They are particularly careful to waste no part of the fish. As soon as it is caught they tear out the gills, which they immediately suck with extreme gratification. By another refinement of sensuality or glutony, they cut off also at the same time some slices of the fish, which they devour with equal avidity, covered as they are with clots of blood. The fish is then gutted, and the entrails reserved for their dogs. The rest is prepared and dried; when they eat it either boiled, roasted or broiled, but most commonly raw.

The food which the epicures esteem most, and which appeared to me to be singularly disgusting, is a species of salmon, called *tchaonicha*. As soon as it is caught, they bury it in a hole; and in this kind of larder they leave it till it has had time to sour, or properly speaking, become perfectly putrified. It is only in this state of corruption that it attains the flavour most pleasing to the delicate palates of these people. In my opinion the infectious odour that exhales from this fish would suffice to repulse the most hungry being; and yet a Kamtschadale feeds voluptuously upon this rotten flesh. How fortunate does he consider himself when the head falls to his lot! this is deemed the most delicious morsel, and is commonly distributed into many parts. I frequently wished to overcome my aversion, and taste this so highly valued food; but my resolution was unequal to it; and I was not only unable to taste it, but even to bring it near my mouth; every time I attempted, the fetid exhalation which it emitted gave me a nausea, and disgusted me insuperably.

The entertainments and assemblies of the native Kamtschadale, at which I was also present, offered a spectacle entitled to notice for its singularity. I know not which

struck me most, the song or the dance. The dance appeared to me to be that of savages. It consisted in making regular movements, or rather unpleasant and difficult distortions, and in uttering at the same time a forced and guttural sound, like a continued hiccup, to mark the time of the air sung by the assembly, the words of which are frequently void of sense, even in Kamtschadale.

In their dances they are fond of imitating the different animals they pursue, such as the partridge and others, but principally the bear. They represent its sluggish and stupid gait, its different feelings and situations; as the young ones about their dam; the amorous sports of the male with the female; and lastly, its agitation when purposed. They must have a perfect knowledge of this animal, and have made it their particular study, for they represent all its motions as exactly, I believe, as it is possible. I asked the Russians, who were greater connoisseurs than myself, having been oftener present at the taking of these animals, whether their pantomime ballets were well executed; and they assured me that the dancers were the best in the country, and that the cries, gait, and various attitudes of the bear, were as accurate as life. Meanwhile, without offence to the amateurs, these dances are, in my opinion, not less fatiguing to the spectators than to the performers. It is a real pain to see them distort their hips, dislocate every limb, and wear out their lungs, to express the excess of pleasure which they take in these strange balls, which, I repeat it, resemble the absurd diversions of savages: the Kamtschadale may indeed, in many respects, be considered as of that rank.

Having given an account of the address with which these people counterfeit the postures and motions of the bear, who may be called their dancing master, it may not be unpleasing to relate in what manner they hunt this animal. There are various modes of attacking it; sometimes they lay snares for it: under a heavy

trap, supported in the air by a scaf-folding sufficiently high, they place some kind of bait to attract the bear, and which he no sooner smells and perceives, than he eagerly ad-vances to devour; at the same time he shakes the feeble support of the trap, which falls upon his neck, and punishes his voraciousness by crushing his head, and frequently his whole body. In passing the woods I have seen them caught in this way; the trap is kept baited till it succeeds, which sometimes does not happen for almost a year. This method of taking them re-quires no great boldnes, or fatigue; but there is another mode, very much adopted in this country, to which equal strength and courage are neces-sary. A Kamtschadale goes out, either alone or in company, to find a bear. He has no other arms than his gun, a kind of carbine whose but-end is very small; a lance or spear; and his knife. His stock of provisions is made up in a bundle containing about twenty fish. Thus lightly equipped, he penetrates into the thickest part of the woods, and every place that is likely to be the haunt of this animal. It is commonly in the briars, or among the rushes on the borders of lakes and rivers, that the Kamtschadale posts himself, and waits the approach of his adversary with patience and intre-pidity; if it be necessary, he will re-main thus in ambuscade for a whole week together, till the bear makes his appearance. The moment it comes within his reach, he fixes in the ground

a forked stick belonging to his gun, by means of which he takes a truer aim, and shoots with more certainty. It is seldom that, with the smallest ball, he does not strike the bear either in the head, or near the shoulder, which is the tenderest part. But he is obliged to charge again instantly, be-cause the bear, if the first shot has not disabled him, runs at the hunter, who has not always time for a second shot. He has then recourse to his lance, with which he quickly arms himself to contend with the beast, who attacks him in his turn. His life is in danger if he does not give the bear a mortal thrust; and in such combats, it may be supposed the man is not always the conqueror; but this does not prevent the inhabitants of this country from daily exposing their lives; the frequent examples of the death of their countrymen has no effect upon them: indeed they never go out, without considering before hand that it is either to conquer or to die; and this severe alternative neither stops nor terrifies them.

They hunt other animals nearly in the same manner, such as rein deer, ar-gali, or wild sheep, called in Russia *dikibarani*, foxes, otters, beavers, sables, hares, &c. but they have not the same dangers to encounter; sometimes they make use of snares, constructed of wood or iron, less than those which are set for bears, and resembling in their simplicity our pitfalls; no other attention is necessary than that of vi-siting them from time to time.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

If the following detached thoughts should appear deserving of a place in your valuable and entertaining Magazine, by inserting them you will much oblige
Yours, &c.
Hameron.

Non omne quod micat aurum est.

HORACE, among the Latins, has justly been styled the Prince of Lyric Poetry, and I am certain every reader of taste will agree with me, that he richly deserves this ap-pellation. But, at the same time that

that I subscribe to the extraordinary excellence and merit of his odes in general, I believe I may be justified in asserting, that there are several, which fall infinitely short of that sublimity and grandeur we find displayed in others. When I consider the odes of Horace, I generally divide them into two classes: the first consisting of such of his compositions, as from the sublimity of thought, and grandeur of expression, seem really to answer the idea we have of an *ode*: the second containing his more light and trivial effusions, which I think might not improperly be rather denominated *songs*. Instances of the first class abound most in his III. and IV. books. Of these such is the superior excellence, that amongst all the various translations which I have read, I never met with one, that did justice to the original. The other class, though several of them possess great merit, are, in my opinion, by no means deserving of that extravagant praise, which many critics so indiscriminately bestow upon the Odes of Horace; and I will be bold to assert, that we have in our own language a number of songs, especially those of the jovial cast, which at least equal, if not excel any thing of the kind that we find in Horace.

When I read his *Solvitur acris biems* —his *Vides ut alta*—or his *Quid bellicosus Cantaber*, &c. &c. I cannot comprehend in what respect these odes, as they are called, are superior to an hundred songs of a similar nature, which we hear every day sung in our streets; such as, for instance: *When once the Gods, like us below.—To Anacreon in Heaven, where be sat in full glee.—Dear Tom, this brown jug, which now foams with mild ale,* &c. &c.—I have read much in praise of his *Domec gratus oram tibi*; but, though I am well aware that so free a confession will at once render me suspected of a want of taste by all the partial admirers of Horace, I shall candidly acknowledge, that I can derive as great a share of pleasure from reading that simple and well known song

Now gentle peace, with pleasing smilets, welcomes the sailor from his toils, &c. In like manner I esteem the *Hermit* of Dr. Beattie: *At the close of the eve, when the hamlet is still, &c.* equal to the *Te maris et terra*, &c. of Horace. Many more examples of this nature might be adduced, but I shall content myself with observing, that there is an air of simplicity and elegance in the song: *In my pleasant native plains, Wing'd with bliss, &c.* which must speak to the heart and feelings of every reader, whose taste has not received a wrong turn, from the affected bombast of modern composition, especially of that sort denominated *Odes*.

I was led to make these reflections in consequence of hearing a song a day or two ago, which I shall take the liberty to insert; not so much on account of any particular excellence it possesses in itself, as for the sake of the frequent and palpable imitations of different passages in Horace, with which it is replete from beginning to end. By comparing these respective passages with their corresponding ones in Horace, I shall endeavour to shew, that the same turn of thought, the same train of reasoning and ideas, which we so much admire in Horace, are frequently read with the greatest indifference, when divested of their foreign drefs, though they may be full as well expressed in our own language. The song to which I allude was sung at an entertainment given by a gentleman to a select party of friends. The words are as follow:

I.

Drink away, my brave boys, there is liquor in store,
And the friend that gave this will, w^t doubt, give us more;

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

Drink away, my brave boys, &c.

Nunc est bibendum. Lib. I. Od. 3.
There is liquor in store, &c.

Est nonum superantis annum Pless
Albani cadus. Lib. IV. Od. 4.
Prome reconditum Cæcubum.
Lib. III. Od. 2.

Non ante verso lene perum cado.

Jamdudum spud me est;

Lib. III. Od. 29. Alike in the earth we must all once be laid;

And the friend that gave this, &c.

Parcentes ego dexteras.

Odi.

Lib. III. Od. 19.

He's a true hearty fellow, you all must allow,
For he hopes if you ever get drunk, 'twill be now.

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

He's a true hearty fellow, &c.

Non ille, quanquam Socratis madet
Sermonibus, te negliget horridus.

Lib. III. Od. 21.

For he hopes if you ever, &c.

Misce stultitiam confisi brevem.

Lib. IV. Od. 12.

II.

He bids you remember, before it's too late,
Of life how uncertain and short is the date;
Then drink and be merry, and laugh while you may,
And doubting tomorrow, make sure of to day:

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

He bids you remember, &c. of life how uncertain and short the date.

Sapias, vina lique, et spatio brevi
Spem longam reseces. Lib. I. Od. 2.

Immortalia ne spores, monet.

Lib. IV. Od. 7.

Then drink and be merry &c., while you may.
Nec dulces amores
Sperne puer, neque tu choreas.
Donec virenti canitiae abeat.

Lib. I. Od. 9.

And doubting tomorrow, make sure of to day.

Quem fors dierum cunque dabit lucro
Appone. Lib. I. Od. 9.
Carpe diem, quam minime credula
postero. Lib. I. Od. 11.

III.

Let grey-beards and pedants our maxims deride,
If folly's a sin, is it more so than pride?
Can all their religion and sanctified airs
Keep death at a distance, or drive away cares?

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

Can all their religion, &c.

nec pietas moram

Rugis et instanti fenecke

Adferet, indomitæque morti.

Lib. II. Od. 14.

IV.

For in death no distinction whatever is made;

The saint and the rake, the severe and the gay,
We must all lie, and rot, till we've rotted away.

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

Alike in the earth we must all once be laid.

Omnes eodem cogimur: omnium
Versatur urna. Lib. II. Od. 3.

For in death no distinction whatever is made:
Pallida mors æquo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas,
Regumque turres. Lib. I. Od. 4.

We must all lie and rot, till we've rotted away.
nos, ubi decidimus
Quo pius Æneas, quo Tullus dives,
et Ancus
pulvis et umbra sumus. Lib. IV. Od. 7.

V.

Then take my advice, firs, and drown in this bowl
The cares and the troubles that harrass the soul,
And that they no more may us vex and enthrall,
Let us even swallow, and down with them all.

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

Then take my advice, firs, &c.
sapienti finire memento
Trifitiam, vitæque labores
Molli, Plance, mero. Lib. I. Od. 7.

VI.

Thus life, whilst it lasts, we'll improve and enjoy,
And each added day fresh delights shall supply.

This blessing be each jolly toper's and mine,
A full, brim-full measure of love and of wine.

SIMILAR PASSAGES.

Thus life, whilst it lasts, &c.
quod adest, memento
Componere æquus. Lib. III. Od. 19.

This blessing be each, &c.

Miserarum est, neque amori dare
ludum,
Neque dulci mala vino lavare. Lib. III. Od. 12.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

I Take the liberty to address this letter to you, respecting the biography of the late Mr. Elwes, which you have indulged us with in your polite magazine. Should the following little, though extraordinary incident, be worth while to form an anecdote in any future number, it is at your service.

Mr. Elwes had a steward, who lived in Great Portland-street, Marybone, Mr. Conquest Jones, who was parsimonious to a very great degree. Mr. Jones told me, that one morning Mr. Elwes's groom, or some menial servant, came to him at the early hour of seven in the morning, desiring his immediate attendance on his master, who had secreted nails, hammers, &c. &c. and absolutely had shut himself up in an attic chamber, where he had been three days: all efforts to open his voluntary prison were unsuccessful.

Mr. Jones, who also was a man of very large fortune, went down in a postchaise immediately. On his arrival at the mansion of wretchedness, he found every means to break open the door ineffectual, therefore got a ladder, and broke open the window, where they found the meagre object

of pity on a poor pallet bed, without food or any other nourishment.—The first words he said were—Let me die here—for if not, I shall die in a workhouse. This he repeated with painful eagerness. However, Mr. Jones conveyed him from his confinement, and after a day or two, brought him to London, to dissipate the disorder.

I must now mention a circumstance respecting Sir William Elwes, who, when abroad, married a Spanish lady, of great personal and mental accomplishments, aided by a large fortune. Sir William had two sons, who were left, with their mother, in a state of insolvency, I think at Hounslow; this lady applied to me, to circumstantiate her distress to the late Mr. Elwes, (the subject of those late memoirs, whether he was a relation or not, I cannot say, they told me that he had sent Lady Elwes once or twice a guinea or two before). I wrote, however, and the result was, he sent lady Elwes either ten or twenty pounds, for which I received her thanks; it is fifteen or sixteen years ago. This circumstance was very honourable, and is a foil to some traits of his character.

M. M.

EXTRAORDINARY AFFECTION OF A YOUNG ELEPHANT.

RELATED BY MR. BRUCE.

THERE now remained but two elephants of those that had been discovered, which were a she one, with a calf. The Agageer would willingly have let these alone, as the teeth of the female are very small, and the young one is of no sort of value, even for food, its flesh shrinking much upon drying. The hunters would not be limited in their sport. The people having observed the place of her retreat, thither we eagerly followed. She was very soon found, and as soon lamed by the Agageer;

but when they came to wound her with the darts, as every one did in their turn, to our very great surprize, the young one, which had been suffered to escape, unheeded and unpursued, came out from the thicket, apparently in great anger, running upon the horses and men with all the violence it was master of. I was amazed, and as much as ever I was, upon such an occasion, afflicted at seeing the great affection of the little animal defending its wounded mother, heedless of its own life or safety. I there-

I therefore cried out to them, for God's sake, to spare the mother, tho' then it was too late, and the calf had made several rude attacks upon me, which I avoided without difficulty; but I am happy to this day in the reflection that I did not strike it. At last, making one of its attacks upon Aylo Engedan, it hurt him a little upon the leg; upon which he thrust it through with his lance, as others did after, and it then fell dead before its wounded mother, whom it had so affectionately defended. It was about the size of an ass, but round, big-bellied, and heavily made, and was so furious and unruly, that it would have broken the leg of either man or horse, could it have overtaken them, and jostled against them properly. Here is an example of a beast, (a young one too) possessing abstracted sentiments to a very high degree. By its flight on the first appearance of the hunters, it is plain it apprehended danger to itself; it also reflected upon that of its mother, which was the cause of its return to her assistance. This affection, or duty, or let us call it any thing we please, except instinct, was stronger than the fear of danger; and it must have conquered that fear by reflection before it returned, when it resolved to make its best and last efforts, for it never attempted to fly afterwards.

OF HUNTING THE SABLE IN KAMTSCHATKA.

FROM LESSEPS' TRAVELS.

I Had an opportunity of seeing a sable taken alive; the method was very singular, and may give some idea of the manner of hunting these animals. At some distance from the baths, M. Kasloff remarked a numerous flight of ravens, who all hovered over the same spot, skimming continually along the ground. The regular direction of their flight led us to suspect that some prey attracted them. These birds were in reality pursuing a sable. We perceived it upon a birch-tree, surrounded by another flight of ravens, and we had immediately a similar desire of taking it. The quickest and surest way would doubtless have been to have shot it; but our guns were at the village, and it was impossible to borrow one of the persons who accompanied us, or indeed in the whole neighbourhood. A Kamtschadale happily drew us from our embarrassment, by undertaking to catch the sable. He adopted the following method: He asked us for a cord; we had none to give him but that which fastened our horses. While he was making a running knot, some dogs, trained to this chace, had surrounded the tree: the animal, intent upon watching them, either from fear, or natural stupidity, did not stir; and contented himself with stretching out his neck, when the cord was presented to him. His head was twice in the noose, but the knot slipped. At length, the sable having thrown himself upon the ground, the dogs flew to seize him; but he presently freed himself, and with his claws and teeth laid hold of the nose of one of the dogs, who had no reason to be pleased with his reception. As we were desirous of taking the animal alive, we kept back the dogs; the sable quitted immediately his hold, and ran up a tree, where, for the third time, the noose, which had been tied anew, was presented to him; it was not till the fourth attempt that the Kamtschadale succeeded. I could not have imagined that an animal, who has so much the appearance of cunning, would have permitted himself to be caught in so stupid a manner, and would himself have placed his head in the snare that was held up to him. This easy mode of catching sables, is a considerable resource to the Kamtschadales, who are obliged to pay their tribute in skins of these animals, as I shall explain hereafter.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

D E L'ETAT DE LA FRANCE, PRESENT ET A VENIR. *Of the present and future State of France.* By M. de Calonne, Minister of State. 8vo.

THE professed intention of this publication, is to examine the difficulties formerly sustained by the kingdom of France, and compare them with the present evils. Mr. Calonne's abilities and extensive knowledge of the economy of France, eminently qualify him to perform this task. How far his political principles may have swayed him, the following account of his work will best shew.

M. de Calonne seems himself to think a justification of his conduct, in publishing his sentiments, necessary, which he enters into in his introduction.

He tells us his sole motive is to be useful; but we cannot help thinking that he had something of an additional motive, that is, to justify also his former assertions.

As his work is begun with some censures on the National Assembly, in which, in our opinion, he adheres as little to facts, as his amiable co-advisor, Mr. Burke, it is very evident what is his intention. He represents them as displaying their eloquence in idle debates about the rights of men; of having introduced licentiousness; of having confounded the powers of government, &c. But as all these heavy charges stand only supported by the *ipse dixit* of Mr. Calonne, we shall pass them over.

It is on the state of the finances he principally directs his researches, and to this we must allow him fully equal. The only question is, whether he gives us such an account as can be supported by facts.

Mr. Calonne tells us, that the deficiency per annum of the revenue, or what

the expenditure exceeds the revenue, was, before the revolution, 56,000,000 livres, but that it now amounts to 255,000,000 per annum. A most melancholy prospect indeed! But this is not all; he states the national debt in 1787, 3,020,000,000, but says it is now increased to 4,241,000,000.

It is well known that the National Assembly of France propose to issue *assignats*, and these to be taken in payment for the national property, now to be sold; if, therefore, the amount of the property equals, or comes near to the amount of the debt, it would evidently exonerate the nation from all charges, except the current expences of government. It becomes therefore the interest of all those who wish to counteract the revolution, to impress the people with an opinion that the property intended for sale will not answer this end. This, Mr. Calonne labours hard to effect; but the favourable operation the sale of this immense property must have on the national debt of France, is too self-evident to be denied, and, if it does not emancipate that country from its present load of debts, will at least go far towards effecting it.

Passing from the finances, Mr. Calonne attacks the National Assembly on other points, and asserts, 1st. that the Assembly have formed themselves into a permanent body. 2d. That they have established martial law. And 3d, Of the new division of the kingdom. These he considers as affairs not within their power, as their constituents have given them no authority to act therein.

Another class of their decrees he considers as actually void, as being opposite to their instructions. As their depriving the King of a part of his prerogative, the abolition of ranks, invasion of property, &c.

On all these subjects Mr. Calonne treats pretty much at large; and if

we could admit his facts, we might possibly agree with him in most of his conclusions. But in the first place, the assertion, that the National Assembly have formed themselves into a permanent body, is notoriously false, as their existence is to determine as soon as the constitution is settled. Their establishment of martial law becomes a measure absolutely necessary, till that constitution shall be completed: and the new division of the kingdom, although represented as a wanton act of power, is a measure of the highest political prudence, when we consider that France was once divided into various states, each of which had certain local customs and prejudices, which could no otherways be eradicated.

In reviewing this work, we find an astonishing similitude between this gentleman's opinion and Mr. Burke's, with this difference, that the Frenchman reasons with great acuteness and good sense on false facts; the foundation and superstructure of Mr. Burke's work are equally weak and flimsy. We have treated this as a foreign publication, for although printed in London, yet being in a foreign language, and the work of a foreigner, we think ourselves justified in so doing.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS IN KAMTSCHATKA, during the Years 1787 and 1788. Translated from the French of Mons. de Lefèvre. 2 vol. 8vo. Johnson.

(Concluded.)

PROCEEDING from village to village, in this inhospitable country, they came to one named Ma-
choure, one of the most considerable in the peninsula. Here, says Mr. Lefèvre,

All the Kamtschadales of this village, men and women, are chamanes, or believers in the witchcraft of these pretended forcers. They dread to see excesses the popes or Russian priests, for whom they entertain the most inveterate hatred. They do all they can to avoid meeting them. This is sometimes impossible, and in that case, when they find them at hand, they act the hypocrite, and make their escape the first opportunity that offers. I attribute this fear to the ardent zeal which these priests have doubtless shown for the extirpation of idolatry, and which the Kamtschadales consider as persecution. They accordingly look upon them as their greatest enemies. Perhaps they have reason to believe, that in wishing to convert them, the overthrow of their idols was not the only thing these missionaries had in view. These popes probably set them no example of the virtues upon which they claim. It is suspected that their object is the acquisition of wealth, rather than of proselytes,

and the gratification of their inordinate propensity to drunkenness. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that the inhabitants retain their ancient errors. They pay a secret homage to their god Koutka, and place in him to entire a confidence, that they address their prayers exclusively to him when they are desirous of obtaining any boon, or of engaging in any enterprise. When they go to the chase, they abstain from washing themselves, and are careful not to make the sign of the cross: they invoke their Koutka, and the first animal they catch is immediately sacrificed to him. After this act of devotion, they conceive that their chase will be successful; on the contrary, if they were to cross themselves, they would despair of catching any thing. It is also a part of their superstition to consecrate to Koutka their new-born children, who, the moment they have left their cradles, are destined to become chamanes. The veneration of the inhabitants of this village for forcers can scarcely be conceived; it approaches to insanity, and is really to be pitied; for the extravagant and wild absurdities by which these magicians keep alive the credulity of their compatriots, excites our indignation rather than our laughter. At present they do not profess their art openly, or give the same splendour they once did to their necromancy. They no longer decorate their garments with mystic rings, and other symbolic figures of metal, that jingled together upon the slightest motion of their body. In like manner they have abandoned the kind of kettle which they used to strike with a fort

a sort of musical intonation in their pretended enchantments, and with which they announced their approach. In short, they have forsaken all their magic instruments. The following are the ceremonies they observe in their assemblies, which they are careful to hold in secret, though not the less frequently on that account. Conceive of a circle of spectators, stupidly rapt in attention, and ranged round the magician, male or female, for, as I have before observed, the women are equally initiated into the mysteries. All at once he begins to sing, or to utter shrill sounds, without either measure or signification. The docile assembly strike in with him, and the concert becomes a medley of harsh and insupportable discords. By degrees the chaman is warmed, and he begins to dance to the confused accents of his auditory, who become hoarse and exhausted, from the violence of their exertions. As the prophetic spirit is excited in the minister of their Koutka, the animation of the dance increases. Like the Pythian on the tripod, he rolls his ghastly and haggard eyes; all his motions are convulsive; his mouth is drawn awry, his limbs stiffened, and every distortion and grimace is put in practice by him, to the great admiration of his disciples. Having acted these buffooneries for some time, he suddenly stops, as if inspired, and becomes now as composed as he was before agitated. It is the sacred collectedness of a man full of the god that governs him, and who is about to speak by his voice.— Surprised and trembling, the assembly is instantly mute, in expectation of the marvels that are to be revealed. The self-created prophet then utters at different intervals, broken sentences, words without meaning, and whatever nonsense comes into the head of the impostor; and this is invariably considered as the effect of inspiration. His jargon is accompanied either with a torrent of tears or loud bursts of laughter, according to the complexion of the tidings he has to announce; and the expression and gesture of the orator vary in conformity to his feelings. I was furnished with this account by persons entitled to credit, and who had contrived to be present at these absurd revelations.

There seems to be some analogy between these chamans and the sect called quakers. The quakers pretend equally to inspiration. The difference is this: these prompt orators harangue extempore upon the subject of morality, whose fundamental principles they endeavour to recommend; whereas the Kamtschadale declaimers understand not a word of what they utter, and only make use of their mysterious and hypocritical jargon to

increase the idolatry of their stupid admixters.

M. Leeseps departing from Poustretsk, passed through Kaminoi, Parine, Ingiga, Okotsk, and Casan, in his way to Moscow. His description of the country, the natives, and the natural curiosities, are entertaining, from which we shall hereafter give some extracts.

The following account of the Hot Springs at Tavatoma is given.

Desirous of seeing a hot spring which Oumiavin pointed out to me in the neighbourhood, I put on my rackets, to cross on foot a small wood, by the side of which it forms a stream, three fathoms wide, which pours itself into the Tavatoma. I left my people, therefore, at an elbow, formed by the river at this place, and it was agreed that they should proceed over a high mountain that was at the right, and take the opportunity, while they waited for me, of feeding the deer, and preparing our dinner. Accompanied only by M. Kisselioff, I travelled two wersts to reach the spring.

It is said to be composed of a number of others, issuing from a mountain at the left of the river, and which unite in their descent. A thick smoke rises in clouds above these waters, but it has no offensive smell. The heat is extreme, and the bubbling continual. Their taste is sharp and disagreeable, which seems to imply that the waters contain sulphurous and saline particles; by analysing them, they would probably also be found to have iron and copper. It is certain that the stones we picked up along the stream, had all a volcanic quality; but the most singular circumstance was, the effect the water produced upon us. I merely, in a slight manner, washed my mouth with it, and M. Kisselioff his face; he had the skin of his face taken off, and I had my tongue and palate flayed, and for a long time was unable to eat any thing hot or high seasoned.

Having satisfied my curiosity, we prepared to join our company. To effect this, we imagined that we were to pass a mountain opposite to that from which the hot spring issued. Our rackets made us retreat instead of advancing, and we were obliged to take them off, and ascend by the help of our hands and feet. About three-fourths of the way, overcome with fatigue, and apprehensive that we had mistaken the road, I intreated my companion, who was more accustomed to this mode of climbing

climbing upon the snow, to endeavour to gain the summit, from whence I hoped he would be able to discover our equipage. He succeeded, and after waiting an hour and a half in anxiety, I saw the good Koriac coming with a fledge to my assistance. We had in reality taken the wrong direction, he informed me, and Kiffelioff had been ten times on the point of perishing before he found our camp. Upon my arrival we proceeded immediately on our journey, and did not halt till it was late, and we were twenty-five wersts from the hot springs of Tavatoma.

The account of the commerce between Russia and China, carried on by the town of Irkoutsk, is highly interesting.

But it is to commerce that this capital is chiefly indebted for its splendour. By its situation, it is the entrepôt of that which is carried on between Russia and China. It is known that an intercourse is kept up by land; sometimes active, sometimes languishing, frequently interrupted, it has undergone so many variations, that it is necessary, in my opinion, to go back to the origin of this connection, to judge of its constitude, and the improvements of which it is capable.

The first accounts are dated in the middle of the last century, about the time of the invasion of the Mantchew Tartars, who, having for a long time ravaged the northern provinces of the Chinese empire, at last subjugated it entirely. It was to a governor of Tobolsk, that Russia was indebted for the first idea of effecting this commerce, in consequence of an attempt made at Pekin, by persons of confidence, whom he sent thither. Far from being discouraged by the trifling success of these emissaries, Russian and Siberian merchants united together to profit, if it were possible, by their discoveries. They sent out a caravan in the year 1670, which brought back new lights upon the subject, and unequivocal proofs of the possibility of succeeding. From that time companies multiplied, the journeys became more frequent, and establishments increased.

This progress alarmed the Chinese, who resolved to set bounds to it. Forts were erected to restrain a neighbour, who, advancing nearer every day, by the river Amour, the Eastern Sea, and the Selenga, insensibly approached the frontiers of China. These defensive measures were the source of very warm disputes between the two empires, upon the subject of their respective boundaries; a few hostilities took place, and at last an open rupture. Many years were spent in besieging places, in demolishing and erecting them in turns,

till the year 1689, when the two courts, by the mediation of father Gerbillon and father Pereira, jesuits, authorised by the emperor of China, signed, at Nerchinsk, a treaty of peace and perpetual alliance, which was to be engraven on two stones, or posts, erected on the confines of each empire.

By this reciprocity, there was a free commerce secured to all the subjects of the two powers, who were furnished with passports by their courts. Meanwhile China had taken care to be paid for her condencement, by the surrenders she demanded of Russia, who lost not only an important part of its possessions, but the navigation of the river Amour, as far as the Eastern Sea.

To make amends, or with a view of deriving greater advantages from this commerce, Czar Peter the Great commissioned, in 1692, Ifbrand Ives, a Dutchman, in his service, to ask of the court of Pekin, the same privilege for caravans, which the late treaty granted to individuals. The result of the embassy corresponded with the desires of the court of Petersburgh, the caravans were admitted; and as the court reserved to itself the exclusive right of sending them, it received the whole of the profit. These journeys lasted three years; caravaneurs, for the exchange of their commodities, were appointed for the Russian merchants who composed the caravans, and during their stay at Pekin, their expences were discharged by the emperor.

This calm did not long continue between the two powers. New troubles, occasioned by the misconduct, drunkenness, and insolent proceedings of some Russians, in the midst even of the Chinese capital, had nearly annihilated their commerce. The embassy of Ifmailoff saved it. By the skill of this negotiator, captain of the guards to the Czar, the disorders were stopped, and the complaints suppressed; security and confidence succeeded to this misunderstanding. To preserve this happy disposition, Laurent Lange remained at Pekin, under the denomination of agent to the Russian caravans.

Upon the departure of this resident, affairs continually declined, and the enormities of the Russians increased. They excited the pride and distrust, natural to the Chinese. The refusal to deliver up a number of hordes of Mongols, who were become tributary to the Czar, completed the indignation of the emperor; every Russian was banished from his territories, and there was no longer any communication between the two nations.

In 1727, count Ragouziiskoi, ambassador from Russia to the successor of the vindictive Kam hi, effected the renewal

of these commercial ties by a new treaty, that fixed irrevocably the bounds of each empire, and subjected the merchants to an invariable regulation, calculated for ever to remove all source of division.

The court of Russia was permitted to send a caravan to Pekin once in three years, and the number of merchants was limited to two hundred. On their arrival at the frontiers of China, they were to inform the emperor, that a Chinese officer might be sent to escort them to the metropolis, where their expences would be defrayed during the time of their traffic. It was agreed also that the merchandize belonging to individuals should not pass the frontier, and that they should no longer enjoy the privilege of trading in any of the Chinese or Mongoul territories. Of consequence, two places were assigned them on the confines of Siberia, the one called Kiaakha, from a stream that waters the environs, the other Zurukhaire, situated on the left bank of the Argoun, and they were obliged to deposit their merchandize in the magazines of these two settlements.

In spite of the solemn ratification of all the clauses of this compact, its execution encountered various impediments; the leaven of resentment fermented, or dishonesty gave birth to fresh knavery. Be this as it may, in the space of twenty-seven years, only six caravans sat out from Russia; and after the last envoy this commerce fell into a state of languor consequent upon the loss of credit.

I suppress the detail of grievances alleged by the Chinese against the Russians. Many well-known historians have given an account of the complaints that occasioned the successive emigrations of the Kalmouk Tartars, and a multitude of Toungoufes, who were all received by the court of Petersburg; we have seen its subtle policy, moderate and threatening in turns, always evading the satisfaction demanded by China.

These disputes continued till the accession of the reigning empress. No sooner had Catherine II. ascended the throne, than she renounced, in favour of her subjects, the monopoly of furs, and the exclusive right of sending caravans to Pekin. This act of justice and beneficence, worthy the genius and heart of this empress, was still insufficient to give to this commerce its ancient vigour. The enmity between the two nations was farther heightened by the fickleness of these Toungoufes, who, tired or discontented with their new establishment, suddenly eloped from the dominion of Russia, and returned to their country, to replace themselves under the Chinese authority.

It has since been seen that the two nations, discarding all animosity, entered into a sincere connection, and that the in-

tercourse between the merchants became every day more active and interesting. As the Russian factories multiplied at Kiaakha, which is peopled, enlarged, and fortified, the Chinese resorted to the settlement of Zurukhaire or Naimatschine; the commissaries on each side presided in the exchange of commodities, and the Mongoul language was adopted in the contracts which were made by interpreters.

The Russians have not the advantage in this commerce. The Chinese, who trade in a body, are infinitely more watchful over their interests, and circumspect in their dealings; they know how to discover the real value of the Russian commodities, and they have the skill to sell their own at the price they first fix, and from which they never depart. Tea, for instance, procures them an immense profit; they sell it so dear, that the purchasers are afterwards obliged to get rid of it with loss. To indemnify themselves, the Russians endeavour to raise the price of their skins, of which the Chinese are extremely fond; but the cunning of these people puts them on their guard against this trick.

It would be too tedious to enumerate in this place all the articles that enter into these exchanges. I refer the curious reader to Coxe or Pallas, who are both diffuse on the subject. By a calculation which they made of exports and imports at Kiaakha, in the year 1777, the amount of this commerce was estimated at four millions of roubles; but since that time, various accounts, deserving of credit, assert, that it has considerably lessened, and at present it may be said to be reduced to nothing.

On the whole, these travels afford much information respecting a country little known, and are told in a plain and perspicuous style, which impresses us strongly with a high opinion of the traveller's judgment and veracity.

A JOURNEY THROUGH SPAIN IN THE YEARS 1786 and 1787. With particular Attention to the Arts, Manufactures, Commerce, Population, Taxes, and Revenue of that Country; and Remarks in passing through a Part of France. By Joseph Townsend, Rector of Pewsey, Wilts. ; vol. 8vo.

THESE travels commence with directions to persons travelling in Spain, which

which, being singularly useful, we shall give at large.

Mr. Townsend passed from Dover to Calais, and thence to Paris; his remarks on what he has seen on the road chiefly respect the state of agriculture. At Paris he visited most of the cabinets of natural curiosities. That of M. Romé de l'Isle he gives a particular account of, and a pleasing anecdote of its possessor, which we shall copy.

The cabinet of Monsieur de Romé de l'Isle, Rue des Bons Garsons, presents a most interesting system of crystallization. With astonishing patience and acuteness, he traces the crystallals of salts, earths, metallic substances, and gems, through an almost infinite variety, in beautiful succession, each to its elementary and characteristic form, and shews clearly by what laws they have departed from it. In the prosecution of his subject, he has clearly ascertained a fact of great importance to the natural historian, which is, that minerals may be infallibly distinguished by the form, the hardness, and the specific gravity of their crystallals.— Thus, by the sensible qualities of the mineral itself, if crystallized, we may infallibly reduce it to its proper class, and judge of its contents, without the assistance of the fire. We began with examining his calcareous spars, than which none is more varied in its forms. These, even our dog-tooth spar of Derbyshire, he traced back to the rhomboidal parallelopiped, of precisely the same angles with the Iceland crystallal, or double refracting spar; proving them to be only an aggregate of rhombs, regularly contracted from the base to the apex.

This investigator of nature's most secret path has almost reduced himself to blindness by his nocturnal studies.

A friend of his related to me a curious anecdote, which does much honour to his heart. In his youth he received a good education, and in his advancing years found all his wants supplied, without ever being able to discover to whom he was indebted either for this bounty, or for his birth. That he might know the one, he laboured to find out the other. His first attempts were checked with a warning to forbear; and for a time he continued quiet, if not contented to remain in ignorance; but in the end, growing weary, and impatient to discover a secret, which was so diligently concealed from him, he gave way to his curiosity. Receiving no farther hints to restrain him, he grew more bold in his enquiries, till

Vol. VI.

suddenly he found the stream cut off, before he had traced it to the fountain from which it flowed. Thus, at once disappointed and deserted, he had no resource but in himself. The straitsness of his circumstances brought him acquainted with Mr. Foster, who employed him in making out, from time to time, his catalogues of minerals for sale at Paris. In this employment he acquired a taste for natural history, and an intimate acquaintance with mineralogy.

After some years, the Marquis de Romé died, and by his will not only acknowledged him for his son, but left him every thing which was in his power to bequeath.

The widow of the Marquis, with her three daughters, cast themselves on the generosity of de Romé de l'Isle, who told her, " You have been accustomed to affluence, " and your daughters have been trained up " to high expectations: I have learned to live upon little; I shall take only a small pension for myself; you and your daughters may enjoy the rest."

Monsieur Sage, from whom I had the chief of this relation, took an opportunity of representing this act of generosity to the present king, who has made some decent addition to his income; and he is now in affluence, loved and respected by his friends, and admired by all men of science.

Leaving Paris, our traveller proceeded through Burgundy. He bestows much time on the manufactures of Lyons, and assigns as one cause of impediment to their progress, the bestowing titles of honour on people in trade. An excellent anecdote of Louis XI. on that head, we cannot refrain from inserting. That monarch used to invite persons concerned in commerce to his table.

A merchant, named Maitre Jean, flattered with this distinction, solicited a patent of nobility; the King granted his request, but from that time never invited him to dinner. Mortified with being thus neglected, when he thought himself more worthy of attention, he ventured to expostulate, but was silenced with this reply: " Allez M. le Gentilhomme. Quand je vous faisois assoir à ma table, je vous regardois comme le premier de votre condition; aujourd'hui que vous êtes le dernier, je ferrois injure aux autres, si je vous faisois la même faveur."

Entering Spain, Mr. Townsend proceeded by Figueras, Gerona, and Mataro, to Barcelona. Our traveller's

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remarks on Mataro will contradict the general opinion of the idleness of the Spaniards, and is a strong proof that such a charge should not be generally made. His description of Barcelona gives us a high idea of the populousness, industry, and good government of that city; but, at the same time, we cannot but lament the superstition that prevails there.

Leaving Barcelona, Mr. Townsend proceeded to Madrid, and passed through Linda and Zaragoza. His description of what he saw in this celebrated city, is by far too minute. A long catalogue of pictures is tedious, and of no use. From hence he went to Toledo and Aranjuez. Of the king and customs of this place he gives the following account.

Whilst at Aranjuez the king commonly amuses himself with fishing till the middle of the day, when he returns to dine, like every other branch of the royal family, in public. After dinner follows a short conversation with the foreign ministers, which being finished, they retire to the garden; and he, accompanied by the prince, leaving the palace about three or four in the afternoon, goes twenty or thirty miles to shoot, following his sport as long as he can see.

The two Infants, Don Gabriel and Don Antonio, either for the sake of health, or to keep them out of mischief, are obliged to go a shooting to some other district, and this every day. If they return early enough, they mount their horses, and attend the princesses in their evening ride.

The old fashioned courtiers dine at half after one, immediately on returning from the palace, but the more modern, at two o'clock, and the foreign ministers between that and three.

In the evening, after the fiesta, the princesses, attended by their guards, the grantees, and some of the foreign ministers, enter their coaches, and move slowly on, saluting each other as often as they pass.

By the side of this long extended mall, is a pleasant walk, well filled with company, and in which the princesses occasionally walk. If they are on foot, the whole company follow in their train; when passing in their carriages, all stand still to make their bow; and the cloak, which was flung loosely back, is held up, or tucked under the arm, and the flap, which was cast negligently over the left shoul-

der, is let fall, and hangs like the undertaker's cloak, when walking at a funeral. It is pleasing to see the genteel young Spaniard in his *casa*, which he throws into a thousand graceful forms, each remarkable for its peculiar ease and elegance, such as no foreigner can imitate; but when he meets a person of superior rank, or when he goes into a church, ease and elegance are banished by decorum, and this *casa*, so much to be admired, degenerates into the stiffness and formality of a cloak.

The Spanish ladies discover the same taste in wearing the *mantilla*, a kind of muslin shawl, covering both the head and shoulders, and serving the various purposes of the hood, of the cloak, and of the veil. No foreigner can ever attain their ease, or elegance, in putting on this simple dress.

In the Spanish women the *mantilla* appears to have no weight. Lighter than air, it seems to supply the place of wings.

One evening, when this public walk was thronged with ladies, many of whom were richly dressed, on the tinkling of a little bell at a distance scarcely to be heard, in one moment all were upon their knees. Upon asking a lady what was the matter, she told me, that *his majesty* was passing. Had I enquired of a Frenchman, he would have said, " C'est le bon Dieu qui passe." Her look pointed me to the spot, where two ladies of fashion, well known, and highly valued by all foreigners who have visited Madrid, had quitted their carriage to the holt, which the priests were carrying to some dying Christian. Had it been the rainy season, they must have done the same; and had the public walk been even wet and dirty, none would have been excused from kneeling.

The bull fights have been so often described, that we shall not extract Mr. Townsend's account of them, although curious.

Our traveller gives a very pleasing account of the grand canal of Biscay.

The progress of this undertaking, once regarded like the wild projects of the giants, will, in all probability, and at no distant period, be accomplished, provided Spain has the wisdom not to be engaged in war.

The canal begins at Segovia, fifteen leagues north of Madrid, and is separated from the southern canal by the chain of mountains which we passed at Guadarrama. From Segovia, quitting the Ebro, it crosses the Pisuerga, near Valladolid, at the junction of that river with the Duero, then leaving Palencia, with the Carrion to the right,

sight, till it has crossed that river below Herrera, it approaches once more the Pisnerra, and near Herrera, twelve leagues from Reinosa, receiving water from that river in its course, it arrives at Golmir, from whence, in less than a quarter of a league, to Reinosa, there is a fall of a thousand Spanish feet. At Reinosa is the communication with the canal of Arragon, which unites the Mediterranean to the Bay of Biscay; and from Reinosa to the Suanzes, which is three leagues, there is a fall of three thousand feet.

Above Palencia is a branch going westward, through Beceril de Campos, Rio Seco, and Benevente, to Zamora, making this canal of Castille, in its whole extent, one hundred and forty leagues.

They have already completed twenty leagues of it, from Reinosa to Rio Seco; which, with twenty-four locks, three bridges for aqueducts, and one league and a half of open cast through a mountain, has cost thirty-eight millions of reales, or three hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling; and this, supposing the twenty leagues equal to eighty-eight miles, is £4,318 per mile. For work executed in so complete a manner, this certainly is not extravagant.

To expedite this arduous undertaking, they employ two thousand soldiers, and as many peasants. The former receive three reales a day, besides their usual pay, that is when they work by the day; but they work mostly by the piece. To regulate the prices, they have three tables, 1st, for the quality; 2d, the depth; 3d, the distance; all founded on experiments. The qualities are, 1st, sand; 2d, soft clay; 3d, hard clay; 4th, loose schist; 5th, hard schist, and solid rock; of which they make three distinctions, viz. such as can be worked, 1st, by the pick and shovel; 2d, by wedges and sledges; 3d, by boring and by blast. This last again is subject to distinctions.

The canal is nine feet deep, twenty feet wide at bottom, and fifty-six at top.

When this canal is perfected, which may be less than thirty years, the world, perhaps, will have nothing of the kind to be compared with it, either in point of workmanship, of extent, or of utility. The two first speak for themselves; the last can be obvious only to those who have seen this country. To say nothing of coals, to be carried from the Asturias to the south, and of manufactures which might then be established in Castille, and find a ready market by the bay of Biscay, the excellent wines of that sandy province, now scarcely paying for cultivation, would not only find a ready sale, but would be in the highest estimation; the oils would fetch their price, both for the table and for

soap; and the corn, which in abundant seasons proves the ruin of the farmer, would be a source of opulence, and stimulate his industry to fresh exertions.

For want of such an outlet, provinces designed by nature to rejoice in plenty, and to furnish abundance for exportation, are often reduced to famine, and obliged to purchase corn from the surrounding nations. Considering such undertakings, and seeing them either languish for want of men and money, or not carried on with a spirit answerable to their vast importance, how natural it is to execrate the madness and folly of mankind, so often engaged in prosecuting unprofitable wars, from motives of covetousness, or from the most idle jealousy and groundless apprehensions; spending those treasures for the molestation and abasement of their neighbours, which might be more profitably employed for their own emolument and exaltation, if expended in agricultural improvements, and the general fomentation of their industry. The whole annual expense of this canal is not equal to the construction of one ship of the line. Nay, we may venture to assert, that the men and money absurdly spent by Spain in the prosecution of the last war, would have finished forty canals equal to that I have been describing. The discussion would be long, but the proof is easy. Money is soon reckoned, if we omit the multiplied calculations needful to estimate its value according to the various channels in which it flows, and the purposes for which it is employed; but men are easily overlooked; yet not one of them who falls in the vigour of his age, can be reckoned, even in the first instance, at less than forty pounds, without taking into consideration the contingent injury in the loss of a subject who might have lived to become the parent of a numerous offspring.

Some remarks on Madrid and its environs, shew the manners of the people.

At intervals, I walked about the town to obtain a general idea of it, before I descended to particulars. In my own mind I divided the whole into three portions, corresponding to three periods, easily to be distinguished. The most ancient is nearest to the river Manzanares, with narrow and contracted streets, crooked lanes, and blind alleys, like those still visible in London, but more especially in Paris, where no extensive conflagration hath consumed the rude monuments of art, erected by the remote progenitors who inhabited the infant city.

To the north and to the east of this, as you remove further from the river, the

streets

streets are wider, and the buildings affect some degree of symmetry. This portion includes the *Plaza Mayor*, or square, which in its day must have been a striking object, and terminates at the *Puerta del Sol*. But when Philip II. removed here with his court, and Madrid became the capital of his vast empire, the great nobility erected palaces beyond the former limits, and the *Puerta del Sol* is now the centre of the whole.

It is curious to trace the origin of cities. The shepherd pitches his tent, or builds his mud-wall cottage by the river side, because he cannot afford to sink a well; but man being a gregarious animal, others, for the comfort of society, or for mutual protection, resort to the same spot, and build as near to him as possible. Cottages increase, tillage succeeds, manufactures follow, and the inhabitants, advancing both in number and in wealth, wish to enlarge their habitations; but the ground being occupied, they have no other choice but to raise their houses higher. Whilst inhabiting the humble cottage, they never complained for want of light or air, but now that they exclude each other's light, they wonder that their ancestors should thus have cramped themselves for want of room.

Madrid has fifteen parishes, seven thousand three hundred and ninety-eight houses, thirty-two thousand seven hundred and forty-five families, and one hundred and forty-seven thousand five hundred and forty-three individuals, sixty-six convents, sixteen colleges, eighteen hospitals, five prisons, and fifteen gates built of granite, most of which are elegant. The principal arch of the *Puerta de Alcalá* is seventy feet high, and the two lateral ones are thirty-four, all well proportioned. It is by Sabatini, and does credit to his taste.

In the evening I directed my course towards the Prado, which, at this season of the year, is much frequented: my objects of pursuit had been so many and so various, that I could spare but little time for this refreshing grove; but now having finished all my work, I walked as long as I could see.

The coaches were numerous, and the walks were crowded; all was in motion, when suddenly, about eight in the evening, on the tolling of a bell, I was much surprised to see all motion cease, every coach stood still, every hat was off, and every lip seemed to utter prayer. This I afterwards found to be the custom all over Spain. If the affections of the heart correspond with the external sign of piety in Spain, and if the moral conduct answers to the affections of the heart, this people must be the most heavenly-minded, and the most virtuous people upon earth. But

all is not gold that glitters; and I had soon an opportunity of forming a conjecture, that all who thus moved the lip were not to be reckoned among the friends of piety and virtue. When the prayer was over, the coaches began to move slowly on once more; but soon after this they went briskly off, and, the multitude dispersing, left a number of young women, attended by young men, who from that time seemed to be more at ease, yet, notwithstanding, kept within the bounds of decency.

I have observed all over Spain, that the leading principle is, never to give offence. People may be as vicious as they please; it may be notorious that they are so; but their manners must be correct. This regard to decency certainly deserves the highest commendation.

At Madrid, the hotels are good. They have no table d'hôte; but every one dines in his own apartment, where he is served with two courses, each of four or five dishes, with a dessert, and one such course for supper, with plenty of good wine, for which he pays seven livres and an half a day, including lodgings; but if he eats no supper, then his dinner and his two rooms will cost him only five livres, or four and two pence English.

(To be continued.)

TRANSACTIONS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE, FROM THE UNION TO THE DEATH OF THAT PRINCESS. By Charles Hamilton, Esq. 8vo. 1790.

MR. Hamilton says in his preface, that his motive for publishing is a desire of vindicating from unjust aspersions the conduct of his great progenitor (the Duke of Hamilton) at the time when the union took place. The memoirs from which he has compiled his work, were bequeathed to his father, who was a descendant of the Duke of Hamilton, brought up in the family of the Earl of Middleton, and held in great consideration at the court of St. Germain.

In a long introduction Mr. Hamilton describes the state of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland previous to the union; and then proceeds to point out the Duke of Hamilton's conduct on that occasion.

The Duke of Hamilton could not remain an unconcerned spectator of the affairs

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rious proceedings of the men in power about the Queen's person, nor without animosity suffer them to sacrifice to their selfish purposes, their mistress's honour, their country's welfare, and the subject's dearest interests. He saw, with indignant grief, the abject restraint in which this Prince was kept, by the wiles of the Duchess of Marlborough, and sedulously sought the means of re-establishing her usurped authority. Having discovered, that the Queen's fraternal affection was thwarted by favourites, who had become her tyrants; that, sensible of her own insignificance, she had betrayed great uncautious at the violence exercised over her inclinations; that she had often, by stealth, vented complaints, upon this subject, to Mrs. Masham, one of the ladies about her person, and had intimated a wish to be delivered from her unworthy shackles; the Duke immediately made a dutiful tender of his services, through the medium of that lady, who was not long in imparting to him how benignly her Majesty had received the pleasing offer. His next step was to write, the 7th of May, to the Pretender, acquainting him "with the favourable opening for effecting a change" in the cabinet, and thereby baffling "the machinations of Marlborough. He warmly recommended to him to cherish "the opening perspective, to cultivate the friendly disposition of his sister, and by "all means abstain from any attempt "which might either give her umbrage, "or increase her perplexity. He pointedly disapproved the second mission of Colonel Hooke, whose turbulent spirit "could not fail to inflame the minds of his adherents, and fruitlessly drive things to extremities, which might ultimately "offend his sister, and alienate the English."

By this we may perceive Mr. Hamilton's view is not only to exonerate his relation, but to calumniate the Duke of Marlborough; he asserts that his Grace carried on a treasonable correspondence with the Pretender, and gives the following copy of a manuscript letter from the Duke to the Pretender.

"He condoled with him on the failure of "his late project, which he thought well "planned; chid him for not having previously acquainted him with his design, "as he could have ensured its success; "encouraged him to hope for some other "favourable opening; and bid him rest "assured, that he anxiously watched for opportunities of convincing him of his "zeal." Whether Marlborough spoke

his genuine sentiments, or, prompted by the fear of a disclosure of his former treacheries, he was endeavouring to keep alive a dependence upon him for future services, is now immaterial to posterity, who must, at all events, contemplate his conduct with detestation.

Extracts from various other letters from Marlborough are also inserted in the same style, to prove his close connection with the exiled family. From these and other circumstances related in this book, it is evident that both the Dukes were traitors, and that, in their rivalship for power, they did not care what mischief they did to each other, or their country. The death of the Duke of Hamilton is related at full length; in this relation, which we extract, Mr. Hamilton labors hard to throw the odium of this affair on the Duke of Marlborough.

Upon the return of Lord Bolingbroke from Paris, her Majesty was pleased to nominate the Duke of Hamilton her ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to France. Previously to his setting off upon this embassy, his Grace laboured to bring to issue a chancery suit, which for some time had laid depending between Lord Mohun and him, whose respective consorts were nieces of the late Earl of Macclesfield. By particular appointment the two Lords met, on the morning of the 13th of November, at the chambers of Mr. Olebar, a master in chancery. Upon hearing the evidence of Mr. Whitworth, formerly steward of the Macclesfield family, an old man, whose memory was much impaired by age, the Duke of Hamilton said, "There is no truth or justice in him." Lord Mohun replied, "I know Mr. Whitworth; he is an honest man, and has as much truth as your Grace." This grating retort was not noticed by the Duke. Having concluded their busines, the parties separated without any heat or apparent animosity. Lord Mohun that night supped at the Queen's Arms tavern, in Pall Mall, in the company of General Maccartney and Colonel Joseph Churchill, both violent men, and declared partisans of the Duke of Marlborough. From the tavern this Lord retired to his own house in Marlborough-street. On the next morning, 14th of November, Lord Mohun paid an early visit to General Maccartney and Colonel Joseph Churchill, who both occupied lodgings in the same house. Attended by these two gentlemen, his Lordship afterwards proceeded to Marlborough-house; where

where it is but too plain, that the offending party was prevailed upon to send a challenge to the party offended, (admitting that any offence had been meant by the one, and so understood by the other). In the course of that morning General Maccartney went in a chair to the Duke of Hamilton's house, told the porter that he was a gentleman from the north, and wrote down his name in the porter's book. The General returned, that day, three different times to the Duke's house; at the last of which, towards four o'clock, he was admitted, delivered a message to the Duke from Lord Mohun, and was politely complimented to the door by his Grace.

Lord Mohun, at one o'clock, dined on that day at the Globe tavern, with General Maccartney, Colonel Joseph Churchill, and Sir Robert Rich. He remained in the company of these two last gentlemen, while the General absented himself. At about half past four o'clock, General Maccartney returned to the Globe tavern, and took Lord Mohun away with him to the Rose tavern, where having asked a waiter, "Whether the Duke of Hamilton was expected?" and having been answered in the affirmative, he desir'd, when he came, to be shewn into another room. The Duke entering the tavern soon after, inquired for General Maccartney, who, on hearing his Grace, immediately came out to him. Both retired into a private room, and ordered a bottle of claret, a part of which they drank. After having remained about a quarter of an hour together, the Duke joined some company who expected him, and the General returned to my Lord Mohun, with whom he went away.

Lord Mohun that night again supped at the Queen's Arms, in Pall-Mall, with the Duke of Richmond, Sir Robert Rich, Colonel Joseph Churchill, and a stranger. About twelve at night General Maccartney came in, took Lord Mohun to the bagnio in Long Acre, ordered a room with two beds, and left his Lordship in the care of a waiter, who pulled off his shoes and stockings, and gave him a night-gown.—The waiter depos'd, "That Lord Mohun was very sober, but seemed thoughtful; that he walked up and down the room, with his arms folded up, for some time, before he went to bed." About an hour after his Lordship had been in bed, General Maccartney returned, went up to Lord Mohun's chamber, and disliking the appearance of the man who attended on Lord Mohun, he ordered up another, of whom he ask'd, "Do you like the French?" The other answer'd, "No;" whereupon he desired to be called at six o'clock in the morning.

Here were uncommon pains taken to keep up Lord Mohun's spirits, who seems to have had very little inclination for this duel. Yet he was not a novice at fighting; for his Lordship had been engaged in other broils.

Let us now enquire how it fared with his Grace: So little did he apprehend that foul play was designed against him, so free was his generous breast from fear or suspicion, that at seven o'clock on the next morning, 15th of November, as he was dressing himself to repair to the place appointed, he recollect'd that he stood in need of a second. In all haste he dispatch'd a footman to Colonel Hamilton, in Charing-cross, with a request, that he would dress himself with expedition, as he would speedily be with him. The Duke stepped into his chariot, ordered the coachman to drive to the Colonel's lodgings, went in, and so hurried him away, that, as the Colonel depos'd before the Privy Council, (the sequel is his deposition), "I finished to button my waistcoat in the chariot. The Duke observing that I had forgot my sword, stopped his carriage, and gave his footman a bunch of keys, with orders to fetch a mourning sword out of such a closet. At the footman's return, we drove on to Hyde Park, where the coachman stopt. The Duke ordered him to drive on to Kensington. Coming to the Lodge, we saw a hackney-coach at a distance, in which his Grace said, 'There was somebody he must speak with'; but driving up to it, and seeing nobody, he ask'd the coachman, 'Where are the gentlemen you brought?' He answer'd, 'A little before.' The Duke and I got out of the bottom, and walked over the Pond's head, when we saw Lord Mohun and General Maccartney before us. As soon as the Duke came within hearing, he said, 'He hoped he was come time enough.' Maccartney answer'd, 'In very good time, my Lord.' After this, we all jumped over the ditch into the nursery; and the Duke turning to Maccartney, told him, 'Sir, you are the cause of this, let the event be what it will.' Maccartney answer'd, 'My Lord, I had a commission for it.' Then Lord Mohun said, 'These gentlemen shall have nothing to do here.' At which Maccartney replied, 'We will have our share.' Then, said the Duke, 'Here is my friend, he will take his share in my dance.' We all immediately drew; Maccartney made a full pass at me, which, parrying down with great force, I wounded myself in the instep; however, I took that opportunity to close with and disarm Maccartney;

"which

" which being done, I turned my head, and seeing my Lord Mohun fall, with the Duke upon him, I flung down both the swords, and ran to the Duke's assistance. As I was raising up my Lord Duke, I saw Maccartney make a push at his Grace. I immediately looked to see whether he had wounded him, but perceiving no blood, I took up my sword, expecting that Maccartney would attack me again; but he walked off. Just as he was going, came up the keepers and others, to the number of nine or ten, among the rest, Ferguson, my Lord Duke's steward, who had brought Bouffier's man with him (a surgeon), who, on opening his Grace's breast, soon discovered a wound on the left side, which entered between the left shoulder and the pap, and went slantingly down through the midriff into his belly."

The surgeons who afterwards opened the body, at the same time, confirmed this circumstance. Let any person at all acquainted with the fencing attitudes determine, Whether such a wound could have been given by the opposed adversary in the act of fighting? or, whether, while lying transfixed, extended on his back, he could have thrust his sword into his opponent's bosom, in the manner above described, particularly when it is considered, that the Duke had only accidentally slipped down upon the wet grass.

John Reynolds, of Price's Lodge, further deposed, "That he was within thirty or forty yards from the Lords when they fell: That my Lord Mohun fell into the ditch upon his back, and the Duke of Hamilton leaning over him: That the two seconds ran in to them, and immediately himself, who demanded the seconds swords, which they gave him; but that he was forced to wrest the Duke's sword out of his hand: That he assisted in lifting up the Duke, who was lying on his face, and in supporting him, while he walked about thirty yards, when he said he could walk no farther."

On the whole, our author has succeeded much better in proving the wickedness of one man, than the innocence of another,

Histories of Great-Britain and Ireland. 6 vol. Strachan.

THIS narration of naval and military services commences with the year 1727, where the celebrated Dr. Campbell, in his *Lives of the Admirals*, leaves off; and it is meant to be continued to the year 1789. The volumes at present published, and which are confined to naval affairs, and military operations connected with these, and amount to the number of three, proceed as far as 1763. The sequel is in great forwardness; and, if the public shall approve of what is now laid before them, the rest, consisting of more recent and new materials, will soon after follow. That the narration might not be too much incumbered, he has, in the text, omitted the description of places, most of the public letters, capitulations, naval and military returns, lines of battle, &c. &c. throwing these, with other particulars, into an appendix. With respect to naval transactions, he is full and complete; giving a particular account not only of the operations of fleets and squadrons, but noticing every action fought by single ships, and every instance of meritorious naval service. This minuteness seems to be a part of our author's plan. And undoubtedly, by exciting emulation, it may tend to the benefit of both individuals and of the country. It is not, as Mr. Beatson justly observes, the magnitude of the object that makes courage or zeal conspicuous, or merit more apparent. The private captain, in fighting even a sloop of war, may manifest that professional skill and ability, which shall hereafter point him out to his country, as qualified to be entrusted with her highest and most important commands.—This, undoubtedly one, if not the very principal end of military history, is too much neglected by most of our modern historians, who run, for the most part, either into frivolous anecdote, or into abstracted speculations in

NAVAL AND MILITARY MEMOIRS
OF GREAT-BRITAIN, FROM THE
YEAR 1727, TO THE PRESENT
TIME. By R. Beatson, Esq. au-
thor of the Political Index to the

in politics and philosophy, to which they are too ready to sacrifice truth. Captain Beatson's History, plain, minute, well-authenticated, candid, and really useful, is worth an hundred shapefodical histories.

(To be continued.)

SKETCH OF THE CHARACTER OF HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE OF DENMARK. To which is added a Short Review of the present State of Literature and the Polite Arts in that Country. Interspersed with Anecdotes. In four Letters, by a Gentleman long resident in Copenhagen to his Friend in London. Ridgway. 1791.

THERE is an evident, and a very important distinction between nations in a state of advancement, and nations in a state of declination: those whom the ardor of novelty and imitation carries forward to improvement of every kind; and those who, in familiar language, consider themselves as having had their day; who feel a degree of languor and melancholy dejection; who, instead of looking forward to an active and glorious career, have a constant retrospect to some former period in their history, and console themselves under present insignificance by contemplating the talents, the prowess, the splendor, and the fame of their ancestors. Instances of the former kind we have in Germany, France, England, Russia, &c. of the latter in China, India, Italy, Spain, and Portugal. But the situation of Denmark, in respect to this distinction, appears to be somewhat anomalous.

From the 8th to the 14th century the Danes were the first nation in Europe; and many of the European coasts acknowledged her power, and even now bear marks in edifices, language, customs, and similitude of features to their former dominion. Yet Denmark, while she looks back with pride, looks forward with alacri-

ty; and with enlarged views studies to make the most of her natural produce and local situation, under the auspices of a patriot prince and an enlightened court. She has for some years assumed a conspicuous place among the nations in agriculture, commerce, the mechanical and liberal arts, sciences, and a wise, indulgent, and liberal system of internal policy. Like the Banyan Tree of India, whose spreading boughs take root again in the earth, and is perpetuated in fresh vigour, Denmark, in grafting the refinements of the south on the virtue of the hardy north, flourishes in constant strength, and brings forth the fruits of so happy an union.

To illustrate this happy situation of affairs among a noble and kindred people, connected by many ties with the British nation, appears to be the object of the present publication, which unites much learning and general knowledge and observation with an intimate acquaintance with, and, perhaps, too fond an admiration of the state and the characters that form the subject of his correspondence. Yet in truth, it is not easy to refrain from some degree of panegyric in contemplating such characters as the Prince-Royal, at present Regent of Denmark; the Count Bernstorff, the present minister of state; Count Schimmelmann; Count Reventlow; Chamberlain Suhm; the privy counsellor Luxdorph; &c.

This publication makes us acquainted with the great care and expence that are bestowed in Denmark on the promotion of the arts and sciences, and the happy fruits which that care and expence has produced. The great names that have adorned the train of the Danish muses are recalled to the remembrance of the reader, and new names of great, though, in some instances, obscure merit, are exhibited to view. So that, on the whole, the author has performed at once an acceptable service to Denmark and to other nations.

A TREATISE ON THE LAW OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE AND PROMISSORY NOTES. By Stewart Kyd, Barrister at Law, of the Middle Temple. Crowder. 8vo. 3s. 6d.

THE author of this work, in his prefatory address to the public, says, that "he has endeavoured to produce a composition, which, without disgusting the professional reader, may be easily comprehended by men of business, and serve as an elementary treatise to the student. In executing this plan, he has given,

"under each division, an historical deduction of the opinions which have been held on the point immediately under discussion; and concluded with the law as settled by the latest decisions, where, in fact, it has been settled; where the point remains still in doubt, he has stated the arguments on both sides "the question." We have only to add, that in our opinion, he has acquitted himself well, and therefore we do not hesitate to recommend his book to men of business in general, as a sensible and useful performance.

P O E T Y.

TRANSLATION OF THE LATIN VERSES UPON A PRISON.

BY MRS. WEST, AUTHOR OF MISCELLANEOUS POETRY.

APROACH, sweet Muse! who bid'st the votive lyre
Each melting flow of melody prolong;
Who guid'ſt the harp's soft animated fire
Thro' all the mazes of enchanting song.
Leave for a while Parnassus' shady grove,
And Helicon's green bank, besprinkled
with flow'r's;
With me thro' Misery's horrid dungeon
rove,
Where Fancy marshals all her hideous
pow'rs.

How soul-appalling is the prospect! there
Rebellious Discord, scornful, clanks her
chain;
Loud his the snakes in her dishevell'd hair;
Whilst keen Impatience aggravates her
pain.

Here Care, in sombre vest, desponding sighs;
Here guilty Fear anticipates his doom!
And while Death's dreaded image multiplies,
His shrieks re-echo thro' the night's pale
gloom.

Am I deceiv'd? or does thing e've benign
Beam soft thro' mild Companion's glitt'ring tear?
To see the wretched unassisted pine;
To see the captive left to perish here.

He droops, he languishes, as withering
plants
Languish beneath the sun-beam's noon-tide glare;
With fever scorch'd, in agony he pants,
No tender consort soothes his mortal care.

Tir'd with continu'd Woe's oppressive
weight,
He calls on Death to close his weary
eyes;
Anon his infants seek the iron grate,
And break the mournful silence with
their cries.—

Such scenes of anguish suit not thee, sweet
Muse!
To paint such horrors I no more aspire;
In some cool grot and verdant mead I
chuse
To court the zephyrs, or to strike the
lyre.

THE ORIGIN OF BRITAIN.*

*In nova fert animus mutatas dicere formas
corpora*

OVID. MET.

I.

COME, jolly companions,
And let us be glad,
For sure 'tis a folly
For man to be sad.
'Tis a truth by your wise ones
And sages confess,

* The Editors of the Literary Magazine beg leave to observe here, that they are not very fond of admitting songs; but as this piece has some claim to originality, they have given it a place.

That life is uncertain,
And short at the best.
I.

If so—then it follows,
Our duty must be
To make the most of it;—
In this we agree.
Then fill up your glasses,
And let us drink round:
Here's a health to the lad that
First reels to the ground.
III.

As long as we've vigor
And young blood to boast,
We'll drink, and be merry,
And this be the toast:
OLD ENGLAND FOR EVER,
(Whil'st a glass we have got)
Which floats in the sea, like
A toast in a pot.

IV.
I'll sing you a song that
Was never in print:
You'll like it, I'm sure, or
The devil is in't.
One day, as I wander'd
A great way from town,
Being faint and quite weary,
I laid myself down.

V.
'Twas a grove most delightful,
Where trees form'd a shade,
Which sun-beams in vain fought,
Tho' noon, to invade.
I pull'd out my bottle,
And drank pretty deep;
It follows of course, that
I soon fell asleep.

VI.
But wak'd on a sudden,
I cast my eyes round,
Jump'd up in an instant,
And follow'd the sound,
From a cave not far distant
It seem'd to proceed;
I drew near with caution,
And less haste than heed.

VII.
Conceal'd in a thicket,
I saw with surprize;
(I pray you, give credit,
I tell you no lies),
A whole herd of satyrs
Lie rang'd on fresh grafts,
In the midst old Silenus,
Reclin'd on his afts.

VIII.
Two wanton young satyrs,
True friends of a song,
Had caught the god napping,
And dragg'd him along.—

* This alludes to the well-known fable of Saturn's devouring his children as soon as they were born:—but upon the birth of Jupiter and Juno, his wife contrived to deceive him, giving him a stone to swallow, wrapped up in clothes like an infant. The same trick she practised upon him on the birth of Neptune and Pluto.

"A song, or we'll bind you,"
(At once they all cry,)
Poor, drunken Sileus
Is forc'd to comply.

IX.

He sung " how old Saturn,
As poets have feign'd,
In the age they call *Golden*,
Ere Jupiter reign'd,
Would often get tipsy,
(And drunk he must be
Who 'twixt * stones and his children
No diff'rence could see),

X.

Of wine there was plenty,
The sea then was wine,
'Twas a maxim of Saturn's,
(And so it is mine,)
On all high occasions,
And many were they,
To fly to his bottle,
And tipple all day.

XI.

From hence, jolly topers,
It well doth appear
The gods in all ages
Were fond of good cheer,
Ambrosia and nectar,
Tho' diff'rent in name
From dry toast and red port,
In fact are the same.

XII.

Surrounded by ocean,
Large, pointed, and high,
A rock rear'd its summit,
That reach'd to the sky.
Here often with Rhea,
To taste the cool air,
And drain the full goblet,
Would Saturn repair.

XIII.

One day in a frolic,
(For each would have mirth)
Being somewhat in liquor,
They strove for the toast.
They pull'd, and they struggled,
When, lo! they all three,
Toast, Saturn, and Rhea,
Fall into the sea!

XIV.

But now view a wonder,
Transform'd quick as light,
The toast forms an island,
On which they alight.
Old Saturn with pleasure
Beholds his new reign,
And hails the blest island,
" The QUEEN of the MAIN."

XV.

Here ceas'd old Silenus,
Then call'd for his glass,
Drank it off to the bottom,
And mounted his as.
The sturdy beast scarcely
Could carry his load,
So groaning and panting
Away they both rode.

XVI.

Then drink to OLD ENGLAND,
(Whilst a glass we have got)
Which floats in the sea, like
A toast in a pot.

For ever victorious
OLD ENGLAND shall reign,
The pride of blue Neptune,
The QUEEN OF THE MAIN!

Homerton.

T. DUTTON.

*Quid non longa dies, quid non consumitis
annī.—*

IRevocanda dies! quæ semper præpēte
motu

Sæcula, nullius votis reditura revolvis,
Aspice, quæ lapsura tremunt horrore pro-
celle

Teſta procul, quæ jam Boreas effusus ab
Arcto

Urget, & horrifono tempestas flamine
vastat.

Olim tempus erat, quando Caledonia
victrix

Militia metuenda gravi, partisque tri-
umphis

Hæs petti fedes, & cincta minacibus armis
Sævit, infano belli furiofa tumultu.

Haud aliter rupis fœvi fornacibus Ætna,
Emittitque globos flammam, & lucida
nocta

Ignitos cineres latè diffundit in agros.
Æratæ insonuere tubæ denfulque sagittis

Purpureo heroum fluitavit sanguine cam-
pus.

Afuit interea in summis Victoria pinnis,
Lauro cincta caput; fœvisque aspergit in
armis,

Agmina sanguineis ineuptia prælia telis:
Dudum anceps hæſit; multosque emisit
ad orcum

Ante diem, & viridem rubefecit sanguine
campum.

Illa pharetratis tandem se lucida Scotis
Misicit, evertitque domum, Pariasque
columns,

Atriaque, et solidio factas de marmore sedes.

At nunc aſſurgunt viridi de cespite Manes,
Clamoresque crient, & mortas ore querelas:
Stridet ibi bubo, membrisque trementibus
adſunt

Lurida turba necis, Lemures; gelidique
Timoris

Forma per obscuras noctis late ejulat um-
bras.

Accipiens sonitum faxi de vertice pastor;
Linquit ovile fugâ, miserisque tremoribus
actus

Effugit, & celeri curſu ſuper arva peterrat
Sed quid ego haec plorem labentia mænia
cantu,

Tempore labetur, fatalibus acta ruinis,
Naturæ facies, stellarumque aureus ordo,
Sideraque ingenti pallentia clade peribunt?
Scilicet & fato feret exigitale profundo.*
Longa dies, ſuperumque domo; iterilesſet
ab ævo

Auricomum ætheria lucis jubar, & nova
Luna

Crescentis, facies non usque colliget
ignes.

En erit, ut quandoque elementa ruant, viſque
ignis anhelii

Confumet terram, & nocituris cladibus
actus

Stridat uterque polus: necnon immensa
profundi

Æquora, & ingentem tellus dabit ipsa
ruinam.

Sola diem effugiet supremam splendida virtus,
Nec fato cæſſura, neque exsuperabilis annis;
Illa inter strages, convulſaque fragmina
mundi,

Cum coelum, & celeri volventur fidera
lapu;

Exquirat, ſublime volans, ſuper æthera
ſedem,

Quam neque longa dies! neque luridus
opprimet orcus*.

Rugby. SAMUEL BUTLER.

* A translation of this poem by some inge-
nious pen, is requested.

V E R S E S

TO A LADY, WHO TOLD THE AUTHOR
HE WAS POOR ENOUGH TO BE A POET.

E NTITLED to ſcribble thro' Poverty'

claim,
Since my genius denies to aspire at fame;

That ſome praise to my verſe from my
theme may accrue,

Permit me, fair coulin, to ſcribble of you.

No wreath from Parnassus I hope to obtain,
Nor the fame of a Pope or a Shenſtone to

gain;

Well rewarded if you with a ſmile but
approve

This tribute ſincere of affection and love.

By my pen, vain the wiſh! could be juſtly

exprefſ,

The charming ſenſations that glow in my
breath;

When, my heart warm with gratitude,

feels what is due

For friendſhip and kindness to your's and

to you.

Ah! then could my verſes but equal my

theme,

Nor Shenſtone nor Pope greater merit

should claim.

But

But since wishes alone are all I can give,
That all which I offer with candour re-
ceive.
Of this rest assur'd, none more ardently
 prays
That peace, health, and pleasure may crown
 all your days.
May the joys which 'tis innocence only
 can give,
And a breast free from guile be your's
 whilst you live.
Indiff'rent if fortune may frown or look
 kind,
Independent of her you'll be blest in your
 mind.
Trust the poet* who sings, " Nought on
 " earth can destroy
" The sunshine within, the true heart-felt
 joy."

D.
* Dr. Young.

VERSES ON SPRING.

TO CLORINDA.

MUSE, begin a joyful strain,
Like the sesson laugh, and sing ;
Winter's bleak and dreary reign
Yields to the return of Spring,

II.

FLORA now, with lavish hand,
Decks the fields in verdant bloom,
Which by gentle zephyrs fann'd,
Fill the air with sweet perfume.

III.

Hark, in yonder woody grove,
From a thousand warbling throats,
Join'd in harmony and love,
Swell the sweet responsive notes:

IV.

Let us imitate their joy ;
Sweetly how they bill and coo !
Say, why should not you and I,
Fair Clorinda, do so too.

V.

Drawn by gentlest birds alone,
Follow'd by the laughing Loves,
Venus mounts her shining throne,
Cupids yoke the tender doves.

VI.

Where the oak's capacious shade
Over-hangs the flow'ry vale,
Thyrsis to his lovely maid
Tells his soft and amorous tale.

VII.

She, a stranger to deceit,
Listens to the pleasing strain,
Then, to make his joy complete,
With a kiss rewards her swain.

VIII.

O ! Simplicity divine !
Love unsign'd, and sincere !
If thou art but truly mine,
I have Spring throughout the year.

Homerton.

T. DUTTON.

THE ROSE. A SIMILE.

TO CLORINDA.

I.

AH, what avails the desert rose
Its fragrant scent, its crimson dye,
If hid in solitude it blows,
Unnotic'd by the eye ?

II.

In vain by Nature's lavish hand,
In ev'ry charm 'tis drest ;
No fair-one with the hapless flow'r
Shall grace her snowy breast.

III.

But left to storms and winds a prey,
Its charms decay, its colour flies,
Unwept, it hangs its drooping head,
And unregarded dies.

IV.

What happier fates that Rose attend,
That boasts a garden's care ;
It charms the fence, and soon shall grace
The bosom of the FAIR !

Homerton.

T. DUTTON.

VERSES

Written by a Gentleman to his Wives on the
tenth Anniversary of their Marriage.

I oft has been agreed, you know,
There's nothing new on earth below,
That sterner fence and beauty too,
Precisely as they charm in you,
Have charm'd in multitudes before,
And will in many thousands more.
This doctrine suits me passing well ;
And why, delights me much to tell.
It suits me well ; because in you
I want, I look for nothing new :
Ten years ago I prais'd your charms,
And woo'd you to my faithful arms ;
Ten years ago your truth I prov'd,
Ten years ago your virtues lov'd.
As time revolves in circling round,
In close and closer union bound,
You to my heart the same appear,
As good, as lovely, and as dear :
And, long on this returning day,
May thus my muse exulting say :
So may the Fates be kind to me,
As I am kind and true to thee,
As I shall tenderly remove
Each trace of sorrow from my love.
So when together we descend
The vale of life's remoter end,
The vain complaint that we grow old,
Shall be forgot as soon as told ;
Memory shall speak of pleasures past
With tender triumph to the last ;
And Hope renew a better scene,
Where Death no more shall intervene.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY REGISTER.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

In the House of Lords, on Wednesday December 29, as soon as prayers were over, the Malt bill, the Assisted Duties bill, the bill laying further duties on Malt, the Distillery bill, and Captain M'Bride's Recognition bill, were read a third time, and passed, and notice thereof sent to the House of Commons.

Their Lordships then adjourned during pleasure, to robe, and the House was afterwards resumed and in waiting for his Majesty.

At a quarter past three o'clock his Majesty came to the House, and being seated on the throne, Sir Francis Molineux, Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, went to the House of Commons, and commanded their immediate attendance.

As soon as the Speaker of the House of Commons came to the bar of the House of Lords, in a short but solemn speech, he addressed his Majesty to the following effect :

" That his Majesty's most faithful and loyal Commons had carefully provided the necessary supplies for defraying the expences incurred by the armament lately entered into for the maintenance of the honour, and support of the dignity of his Majesty's Crown. That in providing these supplies, his Majesty's faithful Commons had adopted a principle, which, although it would in some degree encrease the temporary burthens of the country, would add no permanent load to the National Debt, and would afford to surrounding nations a striking proof of the internal strength and copious resources of the kingdom, at the same time that it would set an example to posterity, and form a precedent, which it was the ardent hope of his Majesty's faithful Commons future Parliaments would follow."

The Speaker then read the titles of the several bills of Supply, which he had brought with him from the House of Commons, and delivering them one by one to the Clerk, humbly intreated his Majesty's most gracious concurrence."

The House was then adjourned to Monday the 1st of January.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday Dec. 29, Lord Stopford and Lord Arden took the oaths and their seats.

The deputy clerk of the crown attending, was called in, and amended the Heston return, agreeably to an order of that House a few days back.

The Speaker informed the House that Mr. Mortimer had not entered into recognizance; the time was, upon motion, enlarged for thirty days.

The accounts relative to the Bank of England, presented on the 15th instant, were, upon motion, ordered to be printed.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, as soon as the House was returned from the Bar of the House of Lords, rose, and, after a handsome compliment to the Speaker, on the excellent speech with which they had just heard him address his Majesty on the throne, moved,

" That Mr. Speaker be desired to print the speech by him made to his Majesty in the House of Peers this day, on presenting to his Majesty several bills for making good certain supplies granted to his Majesty in this Session of Parliament, and which bills then received the Royal Assent."

The House then adjourned to Wednesday the second of February next.

In the House of Lords, Tuesday, Feb. 1, thanks were voted in the usual form to the Lord Bishop of Chester for the sermon preached before their Lordships yesterday.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, Feb. 2,

Mr. Wilberforce observed, that on Friday he meant to move for reviving the Committee to examine evidence above stairs, relative to the slave trade, in the same form and manner as last year, and wished to know whether any opposition to the motion was intended.

Mr. Cawthorne suggested the propriety of postponing the motion till Monday, as an election committee stood for Friday.

Mr. Wilberforce said, as the notice was originally for Friday, he hoped it would be convenient to bring on the motion on that day, and wished Gentlemen to recollect that an opposition was intended.

Thursday, Feb. 3. The House of Lords proceeded to receive the opinions of the Judges on the three questions put to them on the 26th of April last, in the cause of Gibson and Johnson, ver. Minet and Hector; and they heard *seriatim* (viz.) Baron Thompson, Justice Heath, Baron Perryn, Baron Hotham, Justice Ashurst, Justice Gould, and the Lord Chief Baron.

The questions referred to the Judges were :

1. Whether the making of the instrument declared upon, appears upon the special

special verdict to be so criminal that the policy of the law will not suffer an action to be founded upon such an indictment?

2. Whether, upon the matter found in the special verdict, the bill mentioned in the fifth count, can be deemed in law a bill payable to bearer?

3. Whether the matter of the special verdict will sustain any other count in the declaration?

The Judges having delivered their opinions,

The Lord Chancellor left the woolpack, and stated, that having attended to the opinions that had been so ably argued by the learned Judges, some doubts had arisen in his mind upon a point which seemed not to have been touched upon, and which he thought was worthy of notice. His Lordship considered the subject to be of the greatest importance to the commercial interests of the country; and as various opinions had been given from high authority during the present discussion, he thought it would require more time, and more mature deliberation, before their Lordships could come to a decision. After some conversation at the table, Monday evening was appointed.

A petition of the Earls of Selkirk and Hopetoun for a day to be appointed for the consideration of their former petition relative to the late election for Scotch Peers. Ordered to lie on the table. Adjourned till Monday.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday, Feb. 3, the House balloted for a Committee to try the Oakhampton election petitions.

Sir G. Yonge intimated to the House, that he meant to lay before them the Army Estimates on Monday.

General Burgoyne said, that he had formerly moved that the business of the Independent Companies should be the subject of discussion. It was still his intention to carry into execution his original motion, and submit his sentiments to the consideration of the House. He considered that there were still some previous steps necessary to be taken, in order to obtain the proper degree of information relative to the nature of the arrangement which had now taken place with regard to the Independent Companies, and meant to move, "That a list of the names of the officers, who were now promoted, should be laid before the House, stating the rank which they had enjoyed before and after the completion of their engagements; as likewise a list of the names of those officers who had been taken from the half-pay."

Sir G. Yonge said, it might be proper to explain that the intention of laying the Army Estimates before the House on Mon-

day, was only that they might pass. It was not meant to bring on a hasty and premature discussion of the business of the Independent Companies, or supersede the intentions of the Honourable Member who had last spoken, to make it the subject of a full and deliberate enquiry. The subject would afterwards find a time of discussion suitable to its importance.

Francis Dickens, Esq. being elected to serve in Parliament for the county of Northampton and the town of Cambridge, made his election to serve for the county, and a new writ was ordered to be issued for Cambridge.

The order of the day was then read, to resolve into a Committee of the whole House, upon the bill for the regulation of jails, and the custody and employment of offenders.

Mr. Mainwaring said, that he did not approve of the House then resolving it into a Committee, as from the small number of Members present, the subject, which was of the most weighty nature, could by no means receive a suitable discussion. He had objections to the bill itself. He understood, indeed, that the present bill was only the consequence of a bill which had been brought forward last Parliament. Had he then been aware of its tendency, he should certainly have taken that opportunity to oppose it. The sum which was to be applied to the purposes of the bill, was to be levied from the most oppressive of all taxes, the Poor's Rate. The Penitentiary houses, which were appointed for the confinement of criminals, were required to receive persons of all ages and descriptions. There they were to be confined, till Parliament should chuse to transport them; and if this should not be the case within three years and a half, they were to be kept during the whole term of seven years. The expences with which these Penitentiary Houses were at first attended, were most enormous, as had been experienced by the freeholders of Middlesex, who were at present erecting a house of this sort in their county. Nor was it probable that the intention of these houses to receive criminals, who had been guilty of slighter offences, and of whom might be entertained hopes of reformation, would be answered if that regulation of the bill were adopted, which required all sorts of persons to be indiscriminately confined. On these accounts he hoped, that the discussion of the bill would be put off for a fortnight; if not, he should move to postpone it for six months.

Mr. Powys said, that in the present thin state of the House he could have no objection to postpone the discussion. But the Honourable Member had certainly not been aware of the state in which the

bill had been left by the last Parliament. It had been approved of by both Houses, but had been prevented from passing by a disagreement which had happened about a master of form. Of this circumstance it was rather surprising that the Hon. Gentleman, who was a diligent and assiduous Member of the last Parliament, should be ignorant. In this state the bill had been taken up, and by postponing it so long as a fortnight, its progress would be greatly retarded. The Honourable Gentleman had certainly mistaken the tendency of the bill; it was by no means intended to have a general compulsory effect with regard to Penitentiary Houses, but only to sanction the practice in those counties, where suitable provision had been already made. He concluded with moving, "That the Committee of the whole House, to take into consideration the bill, be postponed to Tuesday."

Mr. Jekyll and Mr. Powney spoke each a few words upon the question. Adjourning.

The House of Commons, on Friday, Feb. 4, ballotted for a Committee to try the petition of Mr. Horne Tooke on the Westminster election.

An account of the balance of unpaid dividends and lottery certificates remaining in the Bank of England on the 8th of January, 1791, was ordered to be laid before the House.

An account of the arrears of all dividends issued by Government to the Bank for the payment of the public creditors, from the first establishment of the Bank, to Dec. 31, 1787, which remained unpaid on Dec. 31, 1790, was presented, and ordered to be printed.

Accounts of the reduction of the national debt, and of the balance of unpaid dividends and lottery certificates, were presented, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. Wilberforce, after a very short preface, moved, "to resolve into a Committee of the whole House on the further consideration of the Slave Trade."

The question being put that the Speaker leave the Chair,

Mr. Cawthorn stated his objections, but said he did not mean to take the sense of the House. What he wished to know of the Honourable Gentleman was, the time he intended to take up in further enquiry and examinations on this subject.

Mr. Wilberforce stated, that in the situation in which he stood, with regard to the present question, it must be evident that he wished as much as any man to have a subject decided which was so materially connected with the policy and humanity of the country; considering likewise the part he had already taken to obtain that decision, which every hour that it was protracted he thought a reflec-

tion upon the House, nay, every moment, a disgrace to the policy and humanity of the country, as well as an injustice and cruelty to many thousands of our fellow-creatures. As to the question put by the Honourable Gentleman, it was impossible for him to give any positive answer, nor could he agree to any compromise that reflected upon that point.

Mr. Cawthorn said, that the Honourable Gentleman had no occasion to fear that the business would be protracted by any cross examinations that he or his friends, as far as he understood, intended to propose.

Mr. M. Montagu said a few words in favour of the motion.

Colonel Tarleton opposed the motion in general terms; and though he gave the Honourable Gentleman great credit for his activity and perseverance in what he no doubt conceived to be the cause of justice, policy, and humanity, in his humble opinion, however, Gentlemen had been led on by a very mistaken idea of humanity, a sort of modern philanthropy, which had made them lose sight of many objects nearer their views, and more worthy of their humane and charitable feelings, to pursue an object, the accomplishment of which would give but little satisfaction to men possessed of such feelings, when they considered the dangers and the injustice that he knew must attend the carrying their scheme into execution. After some other observations, the Colonel said, that if the Honourable Gentleman could not undertake to finish his enquiries before Easter, he meant to make a motion in that House on the question of the abolition, and have the matter brought to an issue at once, as his constituents, and a very large body of commercial people, were deeply interested in the speedy determination of this important subject.

Mr. Burke said, it was the first time he had heard that the progress of the general principle of humanity was interrupted by the prosecution of any particular act of beneficence. Among five hundred and fifty-eight members, there was room for the exercise of various departments of humanity. It was true that much time had already been spent in the Committee upon the business of the abolition of the Slave Trade. Still, however, there was something so odious in the nature of the traffic, in the name of slavery, that it was worth while to try, whether it could not be removed. He considered that it was the object of the Committee to endeavour to concert a plan, by which the ends of policy and humanity might be equally answered. He approved of the conduct of the Honourable Member who had made the motion, in not having fixed any limited period, within which such a plan might

might be concerted. There were many ways, indeed, in which the business might have been brought to an end. This might have been effected by bringing the business at once before the House, without the interference of a Committee. But here it was not the object merely to bring about a conclusion, but to accomplish it in a desirable manner. The Honourable Member, who had made the motion, had, by his assiduity and perseverance, sufficiently evinced his zeal; and of the purity of his intentions there could be no doubt.

Colonel Tarleton rose to explain; but entering rather into a discussion of the subject, the Speaker reminded the Honourable Gentleman, that having spoken before, he had no right to speak, except in explanation.

The House resolved into a Committee of the whole House.

Upon the motion of Mr. Wilberforce, an open Committee was appointed to sit above stairs, for the further examination of evidence, similar to the Committee appointed for that purpose in the last Parliament. The Committee was ordered to report to the House on Monday fortnight.

In the House of Lords, on Monday, Feb. 7, a petition of several Scotch Peers, respecting the production of copies or originals of some instruments of election, at the late election of Peers for Scotland. After some conversation at the woolsack, between the Lord Chancellor and the Earl of Lauderdale, the petition was ordered to lie on the table.

In the House of Commons, on Monday, Feb. 7, Mr. Powys brought up the report of the Committee ballotted to try the merits of the petition presented by John Horne Tooke, Esq. complaining of an undue return for the city of Westminster. The report stated, That Lord Hood was duly elected; and also that the Right Hon. Charles James Fox was duly elected.

That the petition appeared to the Committee to be frivolous and vexatious.

That the opposition of Lord Hood to the petition was not frivolous or vexatious.

And also, that the opposition of the Right Hon. Charles James Fox was not frivolous or vexatious.

Mr. Burke observed, that this appeared to him to be a serious case, and might eventually be a great evil to that House. If such gross libels on the House passed without notice, it might hereafter be in the power of any man to bring the House into contempt. The Committee had reported, "That the petition was frivolous and vexatious; that the opposition to it was not frivolous or vexatious." This being the state of the case, he apprehended that they could not shut their eyes to the

notoriety of the proceeding had under the petition.

Indeed, he was clearly of opinion that the speech on the discussion of the petition, was an atrocious libel on that House, a gross and atrocious libel on the Speaker, and also on his Majesty's Minister, and it was also a reproach on the Constitution. In short, the petition was presented with a view to enable its author to enter into his pre-concerted inveigle against that House. These circumstances induced him to submit to the House the propriety of ordering the Committee to make a special report, and then the House might probably take up the subject.

Mr. Powys vindicated the conduct of the Committee for not having reported any special circumstances, and observed, that they could not properly proceed in that respect without the direction of that House.

Mr. Burke disclaimed all idea of intending to hint any thing to the disadvantage of the Committee, but expressed his sense of their great integrity and high honour.

Mr. Pitt said, that upon the petition he had already given his opinion, and that opinion was not likely to be changed in favour of the petitioner, in consequence of his conduct before the Committee; he had no difficulty in repeating, that he thought the petition clearly libellous and scandalous upon that House, and that to a high degree; but although this was his opinion, yet he must observe, that it was essential to the privileges of that House, that they should not take up hastily any thing that might appear to be a breach of them.

Mr. Fox said, he was glad to perceive that this subject was not to be pressed forward at present. The Committee before whom this petition came on to be discussed, had not stated any special circumstances in the case. This was in his opinion right, for it conveyed an idea that they were not forward in obstructing their opinion upon the circumstances of the case. The House were thus left to judge for themselves, and perhaps the better way would be to take no notice at all of the subject.

Mr. Burke remained still of the same opinion on this subject, but concluded with observing, that he should never move any thing upon it.

Mr. Martin said, that if there was any thing to be done upon this business, he hoped that some notice would be taken of the great freedom and boldness with which some newspapers treated on the representation of the people, and the constitution of this country.

He observed, that some time since it appeared

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The Speaker observed, that the point to which the Honourable Gentleman had alluded seemed to bear no analogy and to have no immediate reference to the subject in debate.

Mr. Courtenay said, that if the petition was treated with contempt, it would soon sink into oblivion. Here the subject ended.

Mr. Burke observed, that as misrepresentations had gone abroad respecting the time in which his motion on the Impeachment should come on, it was proper for him again to give notice, that this motion is to be made this day week.

The order of the day being read, for the House to resolve itself into a Committee of Supply, *Mr. Gilbert* took the Chair.

Sir George Yonge rose and said, that the accounts for the present year had increased; there had been two fifties retained for the use of each regiment, and which, though a permanent increase, would not amount to more than £600. a year. There was also a charge of £8,000. which the public paid for two years cloathing of the Life-Guards, and which cloathing was usually supplied by the colonels; but this sum, he mentioned, would be repaid in the accounts of next year. He next adverted to the supernumerary officers appointed from the half-pay to command the acting invalid companies, during the late appearance of war. This he did not look upon as a permanent expence, except that of the fifties, and estimated the whole proceedings of the present year at £8,000.

Sir George Yonge then moved the usual resolutions.

Mr. Fox observed, that he had expressed it formerly as his opinion, and continued still of the same opinion, that the increase of the army in the West-Indies was contrary to the boasted principle ofconomy of Administration.

Mr. Pitt replied, that, on the general principle of the subject, he believed there was but one opinion entertained. The increase of the forces in the West Indies was, in his mind, but a subordinate consideration, when the benefits that must occur to these important possessions were taken into the contemplation of the House. As to the system of fortification which had been adopted, and so much reprobated, that was, he insisted, an eminent policy, and an instance of extreme prudence.

Mr. Crawford moved the usual resolutions on the Ordnance Estimates, which were disposed of in the same manner as the previous motions.

In the House of Lords, on Tuesday, Feb. 8, *Lord Grenville* moved, that a

Committee of Privileges be appointed to take into consideration the petitions presented upon the election of the Scotch Peers next Friday evening. Ordered.

Lord Stormont moved, that the petitions upon these elections be printed for the use of their Lordships.—Ordered.

In the House of Commons, on Tuesday, Feb. 8, *Mr. White* presented at the bar the names of the Committee appointed to try the merits of the Fowey election.

Mr. Moreton presented at the bar of the House several East India accounts.

On the question being put, as usual, that these papers should be laid on the table,

Mr. Lushington rose for the purpose, he said; of making a few observations on them.

The Speaker informed the Hon. Member, that it was informal to proceed, unless it was his intention to move.

Mr. Lushington replied, that it was not his intention to make any motion at present, as he did not wish to take the business out of much abler hands.

Mr. Pitt observed, that as the Hon. Member (*Mr. Hippesley*) who had moved for those papers, was at present absent in consequence of indisposition, perhaps it was the intention of *Mr. Lushington* to inform the House, that it was the desire of that Gentleman to postpone the business, and that he may wish to move to that effect.

Mr. Lushington proceeded to observe, that he meant merely to declare his sentiments on this subject, as being a matter of more importance than the House might probably conceive. From what had fallen on a former day from *Mr. Hippesley*, whose great knowledge, and local information, rendered whatever he said on East India affairs of the utmost weight, it may be thought in the East that the present war against Tippoo Sultan was founded in injustice, and contrary to the sentiments of this country. He said that some of the London prints were read with the utmost avidity in India, and as a number of ships were at present on the eve of departure, the speech of that Hon. Gentleman (*Mr. Hippesley*) which had been so amply detailed in the papers, may have very bad effects in our Asiatic settlements.

There was another point which he wished also to mention, as well for the information of the public as for the satisfaction of private individuals, namely, that the report of our forces being cut off in that quarter was unfounded, and from the best authority he could assert, that there was no foundation whatever for the rumour.

Mr. Francis moved, that the accounts laid on the table, and which related to the East Indies, should be printed for the use of the Members. Agreed to.

Mr. Gilbert brought up the report of the

the Committee of Supply, which was to the following effect:

570,000l. 11s. 2d. for the charge of 17,003 men, guards and garrisons.
329,544l. 10s. for forces in the Plantations, &c.

8,487l. 10s. 7d. for difference of the charge between the British and Irish establishments of seven battalions of foot serving in America.

11,435l. 12s. 10d. for pay to be advanced to troops serving in India.

64,500l. for recruiting land forces, and for contingencies.

15,555l. 14s. 5d. for full pay to supernumerary officers.

6,409l. 8s. for the pay of general officers.

63,276l. 5s. 8d. for allowances to Pay-masters General, Secretary at War, Commissary General, &c. &c.

3,857l. 5s. 1d. for expences of services performed by the Office of Ordnance, previous to the 9th of December 1788, and not provided for.

30,613l. 19s. 1d. for services performed by the Ordnance Office for land service, and not provided for in 1789.

25,978l. 18s. for expences and services performed by the Office of Ordnance for sea service, and not provided for in 1789.

2,159l. 4s. 5d. for expences and services performed by the Ordnance Office for land service, and not provided for in 1790.

381,761l. 18s. 3d. for the charge of the Office of Ordnance 1791. Adjourned.

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

O P E R A.—The theatre at the Pantheon opens every night to good, and often to crowded houses. A new comic opera, called *La Bella Piscatrice*, has been performed with great success. The music by Guglielmi is sprightly, and has much originality. Signora Casentini, the first buffa, possesses a clear well toned voice, and Ciriapi, brother to the late celebrated artist, shewed true comic humour.

We are happy to inform the public that the Opera-house, in the Haymarket, will probably obtain his Majesty's licence to perform; the immense property embarked in this undertaking is a serious consideration; the payment of the debts, is, we are informed, particularly attended to in the arrangement.

Drury-Lane Theatre.—The reports which have been circulated of an intention to rebuild this theatre are revived, and we believe it will be soon shut up for that purpose.

His Grace the Duke of Bedford meets this plan with a liberality becoming his high station. He lends the proprietors sixty thousand pounds three per cents. for the commencement. The rest is to be raised by subscription.

The obscure houses which now crowd the site of the building are all purchased, and will be thrown down, so as to form a quadrangular colonnade, in the same manner, though upon a smaller scale, as that intended by Inigo Jones, for Covent Garden.

The house will be very extensive: it is meant to be capable of producing six hundred pounds when full, at play-house prices, which will make it about one third larger than the present; and the avenues to the different parts of it will be no

merous, and so roomy, as to afford every degree of convenience.

If the building commences before the theatrical season closes, the remaining plays will be performed at the new Opera-house, Hay-market.

C o v e n t - G a r d e n .—This theatre still continues to produce new pieces; no less than two have been performed since our last.—The first is an after-piece, called *Two Strings to your Bow*, the Characters of which are as follows;

Don Pedro,	<i>Mr. Powell.</i>
Don Lopez,	<i>Mr. Thompson.</i>
Octavio,	<i>Mr. Davies.</i>
Ferdinand,	<i>Mr. Macready.</i>
Borachio,	<i>Mr. Bernard.</i>
Lazarillo,	<i>Mr. Munden.</i>
Leonora,	<i>Mrs. Stuart.</i>
Maid,	<i>Mrs. Brangan.</i>
And Clara,	<i>Mrs. Harlowe.</i>

This farce is said to come from the pen of Mr. Jephson (the author of *Braganza*, the Count of Narbonne, and other popular pieces) and to have been taken from a Spanish comedy. It has been acted in Dublin with success, and afforded abundant laughter. Yesterday evening, from the universal applause it received from a numerous audience, the farce promises to add much to the entertainment of the town for the remainder of the season.

The plot turns upon these incidents—Don Felix, a young man of fashion, at Salamanca, having been killed in a duel in company with Octavio, the lover of his sister Clara, the latter is obliged to take refuge in flight, and goes to Seville. Clara being a spirited girl, and not willing to lose her lover, disguises herself in her deceased brother's cloaths, and assuming his name, reappears to Seville, where she has heard Octavio was to be found. Apprized that her brother was

was contracted to the daughter of Don Felix, and was on the point of marrying his daughter to her cousin Don Ferdinand, the appearance of the pretended Felix causes some confusion in the family.

After successfully practising on the credulity of the father and the uncle, mortifying the daughter, and alarming the jealousy of Ferdinand, Clara goes to an inn, kept by Borachio, who happened to be present, on her introduction at Don Pedro's, and having formerly kept a tavern at Salamanca, recognized her, but was bribed to silence. Clara's lacquey Lazarillo proves to be a diverting fellow, possessing some humour and a great stomach. Wanting his dinner, he has entered Borachio's house contrary to his master's orders (for he knows not that the pretended Felix is a woman). While he is lamenting the craving of his appetite, and the want of a marvel to obtain the means of gratifying it, Octavio enters with a drunken porter, bringing in his portmanteau, which he refuses to carry an inch further unless he is paid beforehand. Lazarillo thinking he may procure a dinner by his volunteer service, beats the fellow off, and takes the portmanteau to an inner apartment. Octavio, pleased with his alacrity, rewards him, and asks if he is in place. Happening to answer in the negative, Octavio hires Lazarillo, who has thus two masters, both living in the same inn. From this circumstance arise all the rest of the incidents. Being sent to the post-office by both for letters, Lazarillo delivers a wrong one to Octavio, who by that means discovers that Clara is at Seville. At length, however, after a good deal of farcical cross purposes, the lovers encounter each other, and Clara discovering herself, the farce ends happily with the double marriage of the heroine and Octavio, Leonora and Ferdinand.

Soon after this piece, a new opera, called the *Woolman*, was presented, the *dramatis persona* of which were as follows:

Sir Walter Waring,	<i>Mr. Quick.</i>
Wilford,	<i>Mr. Incedon.</i>
Capt. O'Donnell,	<i>Mr. Johnstone.</i>
Matthew Medley,	<i>Mr. Blanchard.</i>
Fairlop,	<i>Mr. Pannister.</i>
Bob the Miller	<i>Mr. Williamson.</i>
Filbert,	<i>Mr. Crofts.</i>
Emily,	<i>Madame Pictain.</i>
Dolly,	<i>Mrs. Martyr.</i>
Miss Diana Clacket,	<i>Mrs. Webb.</i>
Polly,	<i>Mrs. Huntley.</i>
Bridget,	<i>Mrs. Crofts.</i>

Wilford and Emily, the lovers in the fable of this opera, having been separated by the usual opposition of friends, the

latter retires from the family of Wilford in which she had held some dependant situation, to the cottage of Fairlop, upon the borders of Sherwood Forest. Dolly, the daughter of Fairlop, is her friend; and the piece is supposed to commence about three months after the retirement of Emily.

Sir Walter Waring, a justice of the peace, under whom Fairlop is a tenant, by a very improbable *equivoque*, is made to believe that Emily is kept by Fairlop, which, with some *penchant* of his own, produces a great part of the distresses allotted to Emily, as to other heroines.

Wilford, returned, after an absence of three years, from his travels, arrives, with his friend Captain O'Donnell, at the forest, in quest of the fair fugitive; but does not himself often appear in the search. His friend becomes acquainted with Medley, the clerk of Sir Walter Waring, who first intimates to Miss Diana Clacket, that she will be addressed by a new lover, and then informs the Captain that the lady for whom he has enquired is in the house of Sir Walter.

This introduces another *equivoque*, from which some fun arises. The Captain believes the antiquated Miss Diana to be the mistress of his friend, and the lady very readily attributes his visit to his passion for herself.

After some use of the two *equivoces*, Wilford sees his real mistress, Emily, at the celebration of a feast, given in encouragement of archery, and the piece, of course, concludes with their union.

Medley and Dolly are also united, but the affection of Bob, the Miller, for Emily is scarcely ever mentioned after their first interview.

In the taste of the present day, the music is almost the only essential part of such an entertainment, and who can deny the propriety of this taste, when Montesquieu has said, "that music is the only one of all the arts which does not debauch the mind."

The music of this opera is chiefly original, and is in the best style of that very favourite composer—Shields. The adaptation of the accompaniments is worthy of notice. The audience of Saturday night encored almost every song, and the wish was obeyed so often, that the representation of the piece was unusually long.

There are some new and beautiful scenes; the dresses are also new; and the whole has evidently been got up very carefully.

The performers seemed to be very much at home in their characters, and the piece had few of the inaccuracies of a first representation.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Constantinople, Dec. 15.

TH E Reis Effendi, who, according to custom during war, resides at the head quarters of the Grand Vizir, appeared suddenly at Court, with dispatches of the utmost importance; his unexpected arrival caused the greatest sensation, as various reports of bad news from the Black Sea and the Danube had been received. However, the subject of his arrival is kept profoundly secret, and no one is permitted to speak of the operations of the Russians on pain of death.

Algiers, Dec. 27. A frigate of 40 guns has been lately launched here, which was built by a Spanish carpenter, to whom the Dey and the Marine Minister made, on this occasion, a present of 15,000 sequins. The same person is to build a xebec of 20 and a brig of 18 guns.

On the 24th ult. 150 heads, and a parcel of ears of some Moors, who had revolted, were exposed before the palace of the Dey. They were sent by the Cadi of Zeb.

From twelve to fifteen persons die daily of the plague at Tremecen, a town about eighty leagues from this place.

Peterburgh, Jan. 3. A particular circumstance, which is without doubt occasioned by the mildness of the winter, cuts off the communication of this city with the port of Cronstadt; the sea is only half froze over on the side of Cronstadt, which renders it very difficult for us to procure the provisions necessary for this city, which are all drawn from that place.

Bosia, (Corsica,) Jan. 12. The civil constitution of the clergy is just published; the chapters of the suppressed bishops are shut; a small number of malcontents had some hopes of superstition forming an opposition, but the people shewed their resolution to have the decrees put in force in the most energetic manner, by going in crowds to the cathedral, and substituting the declaration of the rights of men and citizens, and the decree of the National Assembly, which declares the island of Corsica part of the French empire, instead of the armorials and inscriptions of the former bishops.

Rome, Jan. 14. In digging lately in different parts of Rome and its environs, a number of curiosities have been discovered. In the district of St. Felicite especially, they have found a number of curious antiquities, and ten columns of beautiful architecture in high preservation.

Peterburgh, Jan. 15. Government has published two ukases; by the first, all those employed in the civil or military departments are strictly prohibited from forming any contract, association, or en-

terprise, which may tend to increase the price of provisions, or hinder the circulation of them; by the second, all the nobility of the Russian empire are prohibited from taking any part in the contracts and companies established for the sale of brandy, beer, or other strong liquors, as her Majesty is desirous that this branch of trade may only be exercised by citizens and merchants.

Copenhagen, Jan. 15. Government is at present principally occupied with the re-establishment of the finances. The King has given the most positive orders to use all possible economy in that department, taking, however, every care of the interests of the creditors of the state, and of those who live upon pensions from the public treasury. Upon these principles a plan is to be delivered to His Majesty for the reduction of the public expences, in which, it is said, the departments of the mines and of trade will undergo the greatest alterations, as being most susceptible of amelioration and economy in their respective branches.

Denmark, Jan. 29. Yesterday his Majesty signed the suppression of the department of the mines, and its incorporation into the chamber of revenues.

Orders have been issued for the formation of a number of magazines in the kingdom of Norway, and in the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein.

Lausanne, Jan. 30. The enemies of the French constitution appear to have some mighty schemes in agitation, which they purpose to accomplish by next spring. A great number of recruits are raising in Switzerland, and especially in the Canton of Berne; their rendezvous is at Le-rach, small town in the environs of Basle, and at Rheinfeld. The Viscount Mirabeau is one of the chiefs in this business, and is at present in the Pays de Vaud, in the environs of Lausanne. The government of Neuchatel, however, no way countenance these assemblies of recruits, and arrested lately, in a village in its territory, fifty men who had assembled there under the command of the Viscount de Mirabeau, and whom they divided into bands, consisting of six each, and conducted them under a proper escort out of the country.

Avignon, Feb. 8. We yesterday celebrated the federation proposed to all the commons of the country; most of them assisted on the occasion; Cavailton, l' Isle, Perres, Vaifon, le Thor, Chateau Neufl, d'Avignon, Bedarides, and Sorgues sent deputies, who represented above 81,000 citizens.

Strasburgh, Feb. 12. The election of a new bishop of Strasburgh will be proceeded upon shortly. The king's commissioners have written to the assembly, that a new election will be very likely to contribute to a cessation of the troubles; and the mayor of this place has by letter notified to the Cardinal de Rohan the time of the expiration of the term prescribed by the National Assembly for his taking the Civic Oath. The Cardinal returned him an answer, dated from Ethenheim, six leagues from Strasburgh, saying, " That he referred to the pastoral instruction, and to the declaration he published preceding the same; that all his clergy, adhering (with himself) to the true principles, had refused, and would refuse to take any such oath; and that they will all remain attached to their duty, at the risk of their fortunes, and even of their lives." He concludes, " by rendering the administration answerable for all the consequences which may arise in the province from innovations so contrary to religion."

Vienna, Feb. 12. Yesterday the English Chargé des Affaires received the important intelligence from Sir Robert Murray Keith, at Sislovia, that the Turkish Plenipotentiaries had on the 5th of last month, agreed to conclude the Treaty of Peace with Austria, conformably to the convention of Reichenbach; every thing between the Porte and our Court to remain in the same state it was before the breaking out of the war on the 8th of Feb. 1788, without any further pretension on our part. Thus not only all the places taken (except Chocazim, which is to remain in our hands till a peace is concluded with Russia) are to be restored; but all former treaties between the two Courts are to remain in full force; all this upon condition that our Court shall not take any further part in the present war between the Porte and Russia.

C O U N T R Y N E W S.

Norwich, Feb. 19. Wednesday, the 2d instant, the farm of Mr. James Bartram, called Flatgates, at Winterton, near Yarmouth, from the violence of the wind, and overflowing of the sea, exhibited a most distressed and melancholy appearance. Two hours before day-light, whilst the family were in bed, the gable at the east end of the house was broken down by the sea, and in a very few minutes after, the parlour end, together with the dairy and walk-house, were also thrown down. The family had not time to dress themselves, and were obliged, half naked, to make their escape out of the kitchen window, up to their waists in water. In this dreadful situation, Mr.

Bartram, his wife, and maid-servant, remained on a small spot of ground for two hours, the sea washing round them the whole time. As soon as day-light appeared, Mr. Bartram took his horse from the stable (which was yet standing) and seated his wife and maid-servant thereon, and taking the bridle in his hand, endeavoured to get them through the torrent of water next the common, but was prevented by the violence thereof, which obliged him to quit his hold, and carried him to the end of his garden, where he caught a rail; at the instant he caught this rail, it broke, and he was carried to the end of the par-yard, being about one hundred and fifty or two hundred yards, where he caught hold of a post, and by that means escaped being carried into a ditch which leads to Winterton Broad, where he must have inevitably have perished. Mrs. Bartram and the maid-servant, in their fright, fell from the horse, but were providentially saved by Mr. Bartram, as they floated towards him; at this instant some persons came from Winterton, but were prevented giving any assistance till they had procured a boat, which luckily was not far off, and by whose kind assistance the family were saved. The servant boy, who escaped from the house at the same time the family left it, was washed away by the sea, and supposed to be lost; but providentially saved by making to the light-house, where he was found the next day.

Salisbury, Feb. 14. A most horrid catastrophe happened last Wednesday night, at Winterflow, near this city:—In an out-building belonging to Farmer Hayden, were lodged three men, a woman, and two children, who had been brought thither that day in a palf-cart, on their way to their respective parishes in the West, and having been comfortably refreshed, and indulged with a fire, which they promised to put out, they were left to their repose about nine o'clock in the evening. Early the next morning it was discovered, that the premises had by some accident taken fire, and that the woman, her two children, and one of the men, were burnt to death, and the other two miserable wretches so dreadfully scorched, that notwithstanding every possible professional assistance was immediately administered by Mr. Bloxam, surgeon, of Stockbridge, they survived but a short time.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

The following transaction has been very much the subject of conversation in the fashionable circles:

About two years ago, the Marquis of Blandford met Miss Gunning at a ball, and engaged her hand as his partner for the

the evening. Soon after she received a letter, supposed to be from the Marquis, expressing tender sentiments of admiration, and soliciting permission to visit and to correspond with her. The pretensions of the Marquis were indisputable, and a correspondence began, and was continued for some months, until the Duke of Argyll suggested some doubts of the Duke of Marlborough's being acquainted with his son's conduct.

General G. wrote a letter to the Noble Duke, communicating the penchant of the Marquis; and that this letter might be conveyed with becoming attention, dispatched his own servant with it to Woodstock; after a proper interval, he received, by the hand of the same messenger, an answer from the Duke, assuring the General of his perfect respect for the young lady, and that an alliance with the ancient family of the General would be highly desirable. The envelope had the Noble Duke's seal of arms.

It was now expected that the Noble Marquis would avow his passion, and publicly visit Miss G. They waited in vain for this event; and wondering at his absence, the Duke of Argyll shewed the letter which the General had received to Lord C. S. desirous of knowing if it was his noble brother's writing and seal. Lord Charles said it was a clumsy forgery of the Duke's hand, but that the seal was either a copy of, or the actual seal which the Duke had worn on his watch about five years ago, but had not used it since, as he had now a seal of a smaller size and different form.

The General, shocked with this information, questioned Mrs. and Miss Gunning; told them that a forgery had been practised, and demanded the truth. He received no other answer, than that they were equally dupes of the fraud, if it was a fraud.

From the servant, however, he drew a disclosure of the whole plot.—That the letter which he had written to the Duke of Marlborough had never been delivered; that he had gone no farther towards Blenheim than Salt-hill; and that the letter which he had brought back, was contrived for the purpose. That the Duke of Marlborough was utterly ignorant of the whole affair; and that the Marquis of Blandford had never shewn any other than the attentions of common politeness to the lady. The general gave his wife and daughter twenty-four hours to justify their conduct, or to leave his house for ever. They immediately withdrew, and took shelter under the protecting kindness of the Duchess of Bedford.

Mrs. and Miss Gunning have condescended to make affidavit that the letters of this pretended correspondence were not written by them, or with their privity.

According to a report of the late Committee of the Sunday Schools, held in this city, no less than 746 of these institutions have been established in different parts of the kingdom, the scholars of which amount to 49,779 males and females. The success of this undertaking has, in fine, exceeded the expectations of its warmest patrons.

MARRIED.

Marcus Beresford, Esq. M. P. son of the Right Hon. John Beresford, to Lady Frances Leeson, daughter of the late Earl, and sister to Joseph Leeson, the present Earl of Miltown.

At Edinburgh, George Ramsey, Esq. the younger, of Barnston, banker in Edinburgh, to Miss Jean Hamilton, second daughter of the late Robert Hamilton, Esq. of Wishaw.

Thomas Seymour Hide, Esq. of Cambridge, to Miss Johnson, daughter of the late Thomas Johnson, Esq. of St. Neot's.

Henry Augustus Leicester, brother to Sir John Fleming Leicester, Bart. to Miss Letitia Sophia Smythe, second sister of Nicholas Owen Smythe, Esq. of Condoner, in the county of Salop.

Richard Burdet Nels, Esq. to Miss Jane Lidiard.

John Hawkley Ackerley, Esq. of his Majesty's 4th regiment of Dragoons, to Miss Chamberlayne, of Maugerbury, in the same county.

B. Bond Hopkins, Esq. to Miss Knight, sister of Robert Knight, Esq. of Barrells, in the county of Warwick.

Claudius Grignon, Esq. to Miss Randall, of Greenwich.

John O'Brien, Esq. of Limerick, in Ireland, to Miss Macnamara.

Henry Jackson, Esq. of Fenchurch-street, to Miss Sarah Papillon, younger daughter of David Papillon, Esq. late a commissioner of his Majesty's excise.

George Chad, Esq. of Thurford in Norfolk, to Mrs. Fletcher of Great Ormond street.

William Gray, Esq. of Condorrat, in Scotland, to Miss Jane Adams of Curitor-street, Chancery-lane.

Rev. John Dampier, of Wareham, Dorset, to Miss Brown, of Angel-court, Throgmorton-street.

John Townfend, Esq. of Wandsworth, Surry, to Miss Henrietta Bulstrode, daughter of the late Richard Bulstrode, Esq. of Hounslow.

D I E D

Countess Dowager of Tankerville.
In Dublin, in the 73d year of his age, Henry Quin, Esq; M. D.

In the 93d year of his age, J. Smith, Esq; of Faversham, many years int he com-mission

mission of the peace for the county of Kent.

John Nightingale, Esq; Banker in Lombard-Street.

Rev. Samuel Morton Savage, D. D. forty years minister of a congregation among protestant dissenters in Bury-street, London; in which office he succeeded the late Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts.

John Robins, Esq; accountant at the South Sea House, aged 70.

Lady Fletcher, widow of brigadier general Sir Robert Fletcher, and eldest daughter of the late John Pybus, Esq.

Richard Dixon Skrine, Esq; of Warley.

Mrs Daniell, relief of the late Edward Daniell, Esq. and daughter of the late Sir John Athlsey, of Pathull, Staffordshire, Bt.

Mrs. Wroughton, relief of the late counsellor Wroughton.

At his rectory house, at Withington, in Gloucestershire, in the 84th year of his age, the Rev. John Hayward, near sixty years rector of that valuable parish, and in the commission of the peace for that county.

In the 73d year of her age, Mrs. Thornbury, widow of the late N. Thornbury, Esq.

Mrs. Browne, wife of William Browne, Esq. of Watling-street.

George Whatley, Esq. treasurer of the Foundling-hospital.

Richard Paxton, Esq. a general accountant of the Excise-office, and a very eminent marine painter.

Henry Cornwall Legh, Esq. of High Legh, in the county of Chester.

Lady Mitchell, daughter of John Bruce Stewart, Esq. of Simbister, and widow of Sir John Bruce Mitchell, of Westshore, Bt.

Mrs. Lee, wife of Richard Ayton Lee, Esq. of Ingoldisthorpe, in the county of Norfolk.

Rev. Adam Askew, of Middleton-hall, in the county of Westmorland.

At Shaftesbury, Robert Sawyer, Esq. his Majesty's head distributor of stamps for Dorsetshire.

Near Dumfries, in the back settlements of Virginia, aged 103, Mrs. Henrietta Martiel, a native of Hanover; she lived in the service of George the First 15 years, in Hanover 12, in England 3, in Jamaica 23, and in Virginia 53; she had ten children, two of whom are still living; 25 grand-children, and 43 great grand-children, one of whom died the same day that the former was interred.

Mr. Daniel Ayrey of Tooley-street, distiller.

Lately, in Canada, Capt. Phipps Wharton, son of Commissioner Wharton of Edinburgh.

George Lewis, Esq. Colonel in the royal regiment of artillery. For the zealous and active discharge of his duty in the command of that corps during the late siege of

Gibraltar, the King honoured him with his thanks, communicated to him in a letter from the Duke of Richmond, master general of the ordnance, and was graciously pleased to reward him with a pension.

At Bath, Mrs. Cust, relic of Dr. Cust, late Dean of Lincoln.

In Air-street, Piccadilly, Thomas Bush, Esq.

In her 2d year, Mrs. Wolfe, wife of Lewis Wolfe, Esq. Comptroller of his Majesty's Stationary-office.

The Rev. William Purkis, D. D. F. S. A. late one of his Majesty's preachers at Whitehall, and Fellow of Magdalen College, Cambridge.

At Ipswich, in the 61st year of his age, William Clarke, Esq. many years a portman, and several times chief magistrate of that borough.

In Lincoln's-inn, aged near 80, Robert Pardoë, Esq. an eminent attorney, and one of the oldest members of that society.

In Dublin, the Hon. Miss Elizabeth Gardiner, youngest daughter of the Right Hon. Lord Mountjoy.

In New Providence, Lieutenant and Quarter-master William Paxton; and Lieutenant Paulus Emilius Gordon, both of his Majesty's 47th regiment.

Mrs. Sophia Dunlop, a maiden lady, in the 78th year of her age, at her house in Dean-street, Soho.

In the parish of St. George, Gloucestershire, in the 105th year of her age, Mary Clements, many years a pauper on that parish; she retained her seals to the last hour of her life.

In the 81st year of his age, John Plumtree, Esq. many years representative in parliament for the town of Nottingham.

At Cork, Samuel Maylor, Esq. one of the aldermen of that city.

Thomas Patton, Esq. one of the aldermen of the body corporate of Chester, and an eminent banker.

At his son's house in Gloucester, John Fendall, Esq.

At Dover, John Broadley, Esq. formerly commander of a ship in the East India Company's service.

At Norwich, in the 79th year of his age, Mr. John Aldred, formerly an eminent manufacturer and wine-merchant, but who had lately retired from business; he served the office of sheriff of that city in the year 1764.

Erskine Douglas, M. D. brother to the late Sir John Douglas, of Kilmhead, Bart. and great nephew to William, first Duke of Queensberry.

BANKRUPTS.

Solomon Holden, of Gloucester-street, Queen-square, Middlesex, merchant. Robert Minchin, of Bath, milliner.

[The remainder in our next.]

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY

In LONDON, for March, 1791.

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.
Height of the Barometer and Thermometer
with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer- Inches, and 60th Parts.		Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.		Weather in March 1791.	
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	Noon.	11 o'Clock.	
F. 25	29 81 29	53	36	39	32	Rain
26	29 61 29	83	32	23	34	Ditto
27	29 61 29	85	34	39	34	Snow
28	29 95 29	97	34	39	38	Fair
M. 1.	30 01 30	93	33	33	31	Ditto
2	30 9 30	43	33	38	32	Ditto
3	30 89 30	33	34	41	39	Ditto
4	30 3 30	33	44	48	44	Ditto
5	30 22 30	16	48	48	40	Ditto
6	30 8 30	7	39	43	49	Cloudy
7	30 19 30	26	38	44	32	Fair
8	30 43 30	51	33	38	33	Ditto
9	30 51 30	47	34	38	36	Ditto
10	30 42 30	36	29	44	40	Ditto
11	30 33 30	19	37	45	43	Cloudy
12	30 11 30	5	44	50	38	Fair
13	30 3 30	0	46	45	40	Ditto
14	30 5 30	16	44	50	45	Ditto
15	30 20 30	29	45	51	45	Ditto
16	30 39 30	27	45	51	44	Ditto
17	30 21 30	18	38	44	41	Ditto
18	30 17 30	14	47	55	41	Ditto
19	30 9 30	72	46	50	43	Cloudy
20	29 44 28	94	45	48	45	Rain
21	29 2 24	43	45	48	37	Ditto
22	29 72 29	91	45	45	48	Cloudy
23	30 10 30	28	47	51	40	Fair
24	29 38 29	38	45	48	39	Ditto
25	30 22 30	0	45	50	44	Ditto
26	29 63 29	72	42	48	39	Rain
27	29 88 29	95	40	43	36	Cloudy

RICE OF STOCKS IN FEBRUARY AND MARCH, 1791.

Cargo-Exchange, London.

**RETURNS of CORN and GRAIN,
From March 7, to March 12, 1791.**

	Quar- ters.	Price.	Avr. Pr. per. Qr.
Barley	8155	9761 16	7 3 11
Beans	1682	2095 2	9 4 10
Malt	4558	8565 14	17 7
Oats	7176	6310 5	17 7
Pease	318	449 3	8 2
Rye	126	165 0	6 2
R. Seed			
Wheat	3570	8406 14	7 1
Bier			

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Literary Magazine.



COL: BLOOD.

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